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Metapsychology—1956 Model

Kenneth Mark Colby

Energy and Structure in Psychoanalysis

New York: Ronald Press, 1955. Pp. ix + 154. \$4.50.

By ROBERT R. HOLT

Research Center for Mental Health, New York University

A FEW years ago, a friendly critic from neurophysiology, Ralph Gerard, asked a group of psychoanalysts why it was that the life span of a theory was measured in decades in psychoanalysis, whereas in twentieth-century physics it was measured in months. None of the analysts present seemed to feel that there was anything wrong with this situation.

A young California analyst, who understands Gerard's point well, has now produced the first new psychoanalytic model of the psychic apparatus since 1923. He does so in a deceptively small book, for in its few pages he has packed a great deal of thought about fundamental issues in personality theory and some refreshingly original and provocative proposals for their solution. There is much here in little because Colby has the rare gift of a prose style that is at once lively, individual, and economical. He goes directly to the point, says his say and stops. Such clarity of writing could not be achieved without unusually clear thinking.

Colby writes as one psychoanalyst talking to others, but psychologists will feel at home with his style of thinking and his direct, objective approach to issues. He shows an easy grasp of

methodology and the philosophy of science which is all too seldom encountered among his colleagues. His fondness for examples and analogies from modern physics will impress and reassure many psychologists, even if the formidable terminology of the new model may scare some of them off. A glossary would have helped, but it is a rational terminology and not hard to learn.

The book begins by locating psychoanalysis among the natural sciences, accepting the implied obligations, and establishing a psychological realm of discourse in which energy and structure will not have any necessary implications of physiology and anatomy. We must assume a construct of *energy* to account for movement, change, work done; but energy cannot accomplish anything unless it operates in a *structure* of some kind: "a hypothetical ordering of psychic elements" making up the psychic apparatus (or PA).

Colby manages the issues of energy admirably. After a sympathetic but critical discussion of Freud's handling of the concept, he proposes a highly abstract "cathexis energy" (abbreviated as CE): no longer tied to any particular instinct theory, divested of inherent aims and properties like the ability to

exist as "free," "bound," "sublimated," "sexualized," or the like. Drives are redefined as "structural components of the PA which are activated by CE . . . containing specific concept-meaning referable to drive sources, drive aim, drive object and drive space-time conditions" (p. 39). Steering clear of the seductions of homeostasis as a motivational construct, Colby plunges boldly (and somewhat less convincingly) into the murky problem of naming and classifying drives. His solution, rejecting the notion of an aggressive or destructive drive, is reminiscent of Freud's first theory of sexual (Colby's Reproductive or R-drive) and self-preservative or ego-instincts (Maintenance or M-drive). Discussing the classification of drives, for a moment he seems to forget his theoretical sophistication and confuses convenience with the demands of reality in deciding how many classes of drives to distinguish.

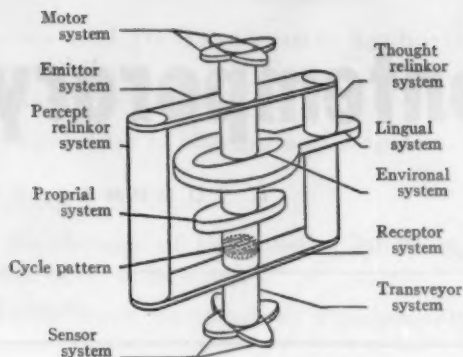
WHEN WE get into structure we come to the most original features of this contribution. After a brief but adequate presentation of Freud's three principal models of the PA (the neurological model of "The Project"; the linear or "picket" model, after its picket-fence appearance in Chapter VII of *The Interpretation of Dreams*; and the familiar tripartite model introduced in *The Ego and the Id*), Colby discusses the clinical advantages and theoretical disadvantages of the latter in an objective, matter-of-fact way. He does not pull his punches, yet delivers his critical remarks charitably and without acrimony.

For once, here is a critic of psychoanalysis who knows what he is talking about and whose tone is neither apologetic nor rebellious.

What Colby has to offer in its place he calls a cyclic-circular model. It is patterned after a circuit with two feedback loops and presents a psychic apparatus designed with a first concern to conceptualize processes rather than regions or states of consciousness.

The ten systems that make up the cyclic-circular model are of two general types: transport systems (suffixed *-or*), which merely carry a process along, and another group (suffixed *-al*) with storage functions, which both change and are changed by it. The thought process, called a cycle pattern, is conceived as a configuration (like a complex wave-form) of cathexis energy. Starting in the *sensor* system, it passes up the *transveyor* system, and is successively influenced by (1) feedback from the previous cycle pattern in the *receptor* system, (2) the *proprial* system of schemas pertaining to the self, and (3) the *enviroinal* system of non-self schemas. The cycle pattern is then broken into three parts and redistributed by the *emittor* system: action messages are sent on up and out via the *motor* system, percepts go over to the *percept relinkor* system (one feedback loop down to the receptor system) and thoughts to the *thought relinkor* system, where they may be modified and cast into verbal form by the *lingual* system. Consciousness is a property of the relinkor systems only, so all the pre-stages take place unconsciously.

The structural unit of these systems, the *schema*, is conceived of as a finite arrangement invested with cathexis energy, pulsating in a rhythm unique to the schema. This wave-form is the encoded representation of *meantent* (that is, meaning-content in a broad sense that encompasses ordinary memories and what might be called programs for operations like drives and defenses). If the schema is part of a transport system, it readily picks up the wave-form that comprises the cycle pattern and passes it on; if part of one of the storage systems, it may add special inflections to the cycle pattern, facilitate it (through synchrony) or inhibit part of it (through dysynchrony). By means of these simple operations, Colby proposes to concep-



COLBY'S CYCLIC-CIRCULAR MODEL

tualize the activation of drives, defense mechanisms, the triggering of action and the arousal of positive or negative affects.

THIS brief sketch can give only the most general idea of the intricate model presented by Colby. It is well adapted to handling some of the problems psychologists are concerned with, like perceptual defense and other aspects of the relation of motivation to perception, the learning of motives, the influence of the self-concept on cognition, and even such relatively specialized issues as the preconscious registration of experience. The treatment of motivation has the advantage of not being tied to an untenable tension-reduction hypothesis, and of doing away with the confusion-breeding concept of instinct.

Colby points out the lack of explicit consideration of symptom-formation and psychopathology generally. Indeed, a disarming feature of the book is the genuine modesty with which the model is presented: "It cannot explain the tracings of the electroencephalogram nor the vagaries of international trade. But it can offer an explanation of affect-feelings"—more than can be said for the tripartite model.

No doubt Colby decided to keep this first statement of his position as brief and uncomplicated as possible. Some apparent shortcomings seem to be intrinsic to the model, however, and not merely omissions.

Perhaps it is possible to conceive of enough complexities of wave-forms to take care of everything that has to be allotted to the CE period, but the strain

begins to show when the same modification (synchronization vs. dysynchronization) has to account for both facilitation-vs.-inhibition and positive-vs.-negative affects. How can we account for ambivalence, or for a person's ability to do something that he doesn't like?

Colby has no trouble with isolated unconscious operations, but a serious flaw in the model is its failure to provide for the relinking of *unconscious* meanings (cognitive, affective, or perceptual), or for the continued unconscious activity of repressed impulses. Without some such feedback, how can we account for the continuity and integrated character of unconscious chains of activity and thought?

IT UNDOUBTEDLY takes a certain penchant for system-building to carry one through the long labors of working out the details of a model like this one, but it is rare to have such a bent without occasionally being carried away into excesses of classifying and making order. This kind of thing may be sensed in the Colby model's surplus of symmetry and two-fold organization. Granted that it is legitimate to make a sharp conceptual separation of thoughts and percepts, or of the physical and social environment; still, are the lines of cleavage so sharp that quite separate systems or fields should be provided, as this model specifies?

An even more serious criticism of the same kind has to do with the structural separation of proprial and enviroinal systems. Where does the self leave off and the environment begin? Even accepting some arbitrary line of demarca-

tion, we still have to take some account of the developmental problem. Many observations seem best explained on the assumption that the self is a construct only gradually achieved by a process of differentiation from a global infantile state of awareness. But Colby takes a rather uncompromising stand that the apparatus is present as described and fully operative from the beginning (although he does make one exception for the lingual system). There are only rudiments of a learning theory to account for the development of schemas on the micro-level (nothing is said, for example, of what safeguards there are against the constant reshaping of schemas by the impress of new experience), but a greater failure is the lack of a provision for the development of psychic structure on the macro-level—even a denial that the problem exists. As David Rapaport has pointed out, this is a crucial deficit in psychoanalytic theory; Colby's contribution does nothing to remedy it.

As I accumulated posers for this model, I was forced to recognize that most of them would be just as embarrassing to the prevailing tripartite psychoanalytic model. One of this book's great merits is that it challenges the tripartite id-ego-superego conception, not merely pointing

out its main shortcomings, but offering a constructive alternative. Now that Colby has broken the trail and shown that there is nothing sacrosanct about the tripartite model, let us hope that other psychoanalytic thinkers of whatever school will turn their attention to the task of providing a more workable one. For the fact is that the tripartite model was not only, like this one, a clumsy instrument for the depiction of unique individuals; it was also poorly adapted to the conceptualization of processes. It is probably no oversight that when Freud issued his last revised and enlarged edition of *The Interpretation of Dreams* seven years after *The Ego and the Id*, he did not try to recast in terms of the new model his explanation of the process by which dreams are formed but kept the old "picket" model, which at least was conceived in process terms.

As far as the cyclic-circular model goes, it can be put down as a good try—stimulating and challenging the reader to handle the same problems better. Colby will not be dismayed that it turns out to need overhauling and perhaps drastic redesigning in some respects. He knows that a model exists to be replaced by a better-fitting one. Less reverence and more tinkering, he urges. Let us all hope

that the tripartite model can never again be as overvalued as it has been for the last thirty years, and that it as well as the cyclic-circular model will be quietly shoved into oblivion by a better one, along with phlogiston, ptomaines, and the ether.

Is the Concept of Motivation Necessary?

Marshall R. Jones (Ed.)

Nebraska Symposium on Motivation (Vol. III of the series in *Current Theory and Research in Motivation*)

Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1955. Pp. x + 274. \$3.00.

By LEO POSTMAN

University of California

THIS VOLUME might well have been entitled *In Search of a Theory of Motivation*. Although the contributors to the symposium represent widely divergent points of view, they all share a measure of dissatisfaction with the current status of theory and research in motivation. Their uneasiness seems to stem from three main sources. First, there has been too much emphasis on biological need-reduction as the goal of action. Each of the contributors rejects in his own way the conception of behavior as controlled by biological needs or derivatives of such needs. Second, there has been too much preoccupation with process and too little concern about content. In McClelland's words, "Psychology today is almost exclusively concerned . . . with *how* a man adjusts rather than with *what* he thinks or does" (p. 41). This concern with content is shared primarily by those who deal with human rather than animal motivation. Finally, theories of motivation should be developed in their own right rather than as mere adjuncts to learning theories. Although this point is not made explicitly, we may infer it from the heavy emphasis on problems of affect and value rather than habit-formation and performance.

Beyond these points agreement largely ceases. Each author sees promise in a different reformulation of the problems



KENNETH MARK COLBY

of motivation and in a different area of empirical research. This diversity of approaches and interests deprives the symposium of focus and coherence, but it becomes of interest as a reflection of some of the fundamental divisions in psychology today.

THERE IS, first of all, the division between physiological psychology and psychological psychology. Should the psychology of motivation seek its explanatory principles in the anatomy and physiology of the nervous system? Are the behavioral data adequate for physiological analysis, and is physiology ready for the task? Olds's paper, which is concerned with the physiological basis of drive, reward and punishment, makes a strong case for affirmative answers to these questions. He presents a careful survey of the evidence for the existence of reward-and-punishment systems in the brain. Against this background his own experimental work on the reinforcement of habits by direct cortical stimulation takes on considerable significance. At the same time, Olds's paper brings out the limitations of analyses of behavior based on studies of brain localization. The physiological data yield highly complex and circumstantial evidence for the localization of reward-and-punishment processes in the brain, and some hints concerning the arousal and integration of motivated behavior. As the psychologist builds a theory of behavior upon these data, the central nervous system soon becomes a conceptual nervous system. When all is said and done, the conceptual neurology which emerges is not very different in substance from the symbolic constructs of the behavior theorists. Olds's paper leaves one with the impression that it is still a matter of taste whether one prefers *sHRS* to cell assemblies.

A second line of division separates the students of rats and cats from the students of man. Olds's studies of brain localization and Young's experiments on food preference come from the animal laboratory; the other four contributors have ventured a more direct attack on human motivation. We can arrange the latter on a crude scale of 'scope,' i.e., in terms of the complexity of the problems which they are willing to

tackle. Rotter calls for a systematic taxonomy of situations with respect to the 'expectancies' which they arouse and the reinforcement values which they provide. Peak's primary concern is with the relationship between attitudes and motivation. Tied for the extreme position on our scale we find McClelland and Maslow. McClelland attempts a psychological analysis of major historical movements. He pursues an ingenious causal chain leading from Protestantism to independence training in childhood, to need achievement, to the building of economic and technological empires. On the other hand, there is Maslow who deals with some ineffable human urge called "self-actualization," which appears to be by way of a mystic experience vouchsafed to some but not to others and which embodies all that is lofty and peculiarly human in man's motivation.

AS WE proceed from rat brains to self-actualization, we find, not unexpectedly but regretfully, an increasing vagueness of concepts and a growing lack of concern with the adequacy of empirical data to theoretical constructs. It is easy to cite chapter and verse in support of this general statement, but a few examples will suffice. Peak's basic concept of 'disparity' as the fundamental source of motivation is vague and eludes operational identification. It is a wide and dangerous leap from the results of questionnaires and interest inventories to Protestant ethics and technological growth. Maslow 'defines' self-actualization as "ongoing actualization of potential capacities and talents, as fulfillment of mission or call or fate or vocation, as a fuller knowledge of, and acceptance of, the person's own intrinsic nature, as an unceasing trend toward unity, integration or synergy within the person" (p. 8). Whatever that means, it reeks of the rostrum rather than the psychological laboratory.

Perhaps we should not be impatient with vagueness and lack of precision when psychologists have the courage to tackle important problems of human needs and aspirations, but we cannot accept the assumption that the importance of a problem makes up for bad logic or poor method. Again Maslow baldly states the extreme position when he says: "It is this humanistic emphasis

which is the source and justification of what I consider to be the important questions which justify inexact and unreliable researches. They *must* be done; we don't *dare* turn away from them because we can't handle them well" (p. 2). Common sense suggests a different conclusion. If the questions are important, dare we be content with vague intuitions and exhortatory slogans? False answers to important questions are dangerous.

It may have been a preoccupation with what is important for man and society which kept most of the contributors from inquiring into the scope and adequacy of the concept of motivation itself. They take it for granted that such properties of behavior as energy, persistence, and direction are conceptualized most appropriately under the rubric of motivation (cf. especially Peak's paper). Their problem is to classify "motives," to measure them and to speculate about the organismic processes which energize and steer behavior. Yet the conventional denotation of the concept of motivation may not be psychologically sound. In an earlier volume of the Nebraska Symposia (1953), J. S. Brown warned against the prevalent confusion between drives and habits. Theorists are prone to ascribe the function of guiding and directing behavior to both habits and drives without attempting a precise differentiation between them. In the present volume there are only the scantiest references to this issue. How can one agree with McClelland that it makes little difference whether we think in terms of habits or motives as long as "we accumulate data as rapidly and systematically as we can" (p. 43)? If our guiding concepts are unclear, our data, however rapidly and systematically accumulated, are apt to be unclear as well. We shall do well to heed Brown's advice and attempt to clarify the relationship between habit and motive. Indeed, one may hope that at a future symposium someone will be moved to devote a paper to the question: "Is the concept of motivation necessary?" That question may turn out not to be as vacuous as it sounds. In trying to answer it, we should at least be forced to separate the logical status of the concept from its evaluative connotations. Some of the contributors to the symposium did not always find it easy to do so.

The Taxonomy of Conferences and Their Reports

By ROGER W. BROWN
Harvard University

IN THE PAST thirty years psychology, like the other sciences, has become a group enterprise. George Bush (1) reports that in 1921 only 15% of technical papers in the magazine *Science* were written by two or more authors. By 1951 this figure had increased to 64%. William Whyte (9) has demonstrated the same trend for a sample of psychological and social scientific journals. Perhaps the most recent manifestation of this tendency is the appearance of a new genre of psychological literature, the report of the subsidized conference. Until after the second world war such reports were rare. Beginning with 1952, however, I find 15 different conference reports reviewed in either the *Psychological Bulletin* or the *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*. Seven of these reviews appeared in the 1955 *Bulletin*. Of course there have been many more conference reports than reviews. The Josiah Macy Jr. Foundation (4), for instance, has published the transactions of more than 70 multidiscipline conferences since 1950. Psychologists have taken part in many of these.

Whyte in an article for *Fortune* (9) and Dwight MacDonald in a recent series of Profiles for *The New Yorker* (3) take it for granted that group research means scientific decline. It is, of course, well established in the folklore of intellectual creativity that great ideas come only to men who work in isolation and penury, defying an unsympathetic society. MacDonald adds a specifically esthetic objection to the new bureaucracy in his amusing attack on "Foundationese," the not very vital language of progress reports and applications for grants-in-aid. Most of us are not so sure that group work is bad for science.

With regard to the psychology of intellectual creation, folklore must not be mistaken for established fact. It is quite possible that we have found, in this century, a better way to build science, a way in which many can help. We are mainly concerned to keep the frontier moving and, if we are rather stuffy frontiersmen, who affect Foundationese,

that does not really matter. When it comes to conferences, however, to group talk rather than group research, most of us would admit to a certain unease.

What is there vaguely unsavory about psychologists being paid to think and talk together about psychological problems? It violates the romance of our calling. It removes us from the company of Heroes and places us with the Professionals. There are no summer seminars for saints. They do not feel the need. The great men of science were not usually great conferees. Neither relativity nor natural selection was first proposed in a conference report. Who are the conferees in our society? Advertising executives, screenwriters, and salesmen. The conference suggests padded expense accounts and jumbo martinis before lunch. It makes of us Exurbanites in all but income.

Oddly enough, poets began to have conferences at about the same time as scientists and, of course, the conference is far more incongruous with the poet's role than with that of the scientist. Poet-conferees give away their guilt by drinking too much and taking irresponsible cracks at Milton. Instead of reports they write satirical novels about poetry conferences. We are still able to write serious reports—though with some misgiving.

WHEN A conference is not committed from the beginning to a published report it often does not make one. Several of us have noticed that originating the suggestion that a report be published is a rather ticklish business. No one cares to imply that he is so advanced in worldliness as to regard the appearance of his own name in print as a desirable end in itself. The suggestion comes best from the most eminent participant since he is least open to suspicion but, unaccountably, he is often blind to the pressing need for a report. The way things stand, the subsidizing foundation had better require a publishable report if it would like to see one.

To confer is certainly not the most exalted function in the scientific role, nor is the conference report our best form of literature. Reviewers of such reports have often contrasted them with the profound theoretical treatise and, quite naturally, have found the report an "exasperating" form, "lacking direction," "a hodge podge." Probably major theoretical advances are not within the competence of a Group Mind, but there may be a more modest job that it can do quite well. The conference does not consolidate or integrate, but it can suggest problems, point out relationships and, above all, open communication between fields that ought to be in communication.

IN 1951 the Social Science Research Council locked up three linguists with three psychologists for a summer seminar at Cornell. Since then there have been at least five conferences of a similar kind, financed by a variety of foundations. Psycholinguistics seems to have been successfully founded by these conferences. There have been several good books, experimental reports appear to be increasing, and quite a large number of young people now identify themselves as psychologists studying language, if not as psycholinguists. The reports of these conferences assume different forms and, reading them over, I have formed impressions about the relative merits of these forms. Separating out the advantages of a form from the merits of the author, his topic, and conference personnel is, of course, an uncertain business.

At one extreme the report of the Conference on Expressive Language (8) is a collection of papers with no exchanges between the authors and few cross-references. There is not even agreement on the sense of the topic *expressive language*. While the individual papers happen to be very interesting, this form of report takes no advantage of the fact that the authors actually met together (for only two days in this case).

At another extreme the reports of the original SSRC conference (7) and of the Interdisciplinary Seminar of the Modern Language Association (5) are presented as the joint opinion of all members. In a report of this kind one can still identify the contributions of particular members, but these are embedded in, and coated with, group prose. This is a prose that rejects the word which would narrowly present only a single view in favor of the term that can represent a whole range of opinion. It is the language of diplomacy and of the political candidate who hopes to 'pick up' votes in all quarters. Despite the wealth of meanings fed into group prose, it makes very dull reading, for, while we can figure out who, in the conference, originated each view and even what he intended, we miss the satisfactions of clear statement and open conflict.

The 1953 summer seminar at Indiana produced a monograph (6) which is the prize of this collection. During the first half of the eight-week session there were general discussions of psycholinguistics, but in the second half the participants worked in smaller groups, each concentrated on a particular problem. The chairman of each group then drafted a report of the group deliberations. These individually written sections were combined according to a classification of psycholinguistic subject-matter. It would not have been possible for all of the participants to agree on a single approach to language and psychology. It was possible, however, for each individual to work effectively on his own problem in his own way and for all to agree on a general classification of problems. The result is a collection of small, worthwhile, but discontinuous theoretical advances. Probably the major advance all along a line cannot be accomplished by a group. The Indiana pattern provides an effective way to confer and to report when a group has time for many meetings. As a single demurral it should be added that this report feeds information at too fast a pace. Group meetings build common experience, and conversation within the group can do with little redundancy, but for the rest of the world a little redundancy in this report would have been a blessed relief.

The report of the five-day conference on *Language in Culture* (2) is made up of

individual papers with edited, but still extensive, protocols of the discussion that followed. Several of the papers are of poor quality and much of the discussion is captious and directionless. But there is something about discussion that makes it interesting to read. Very likely the reactions of the participants to one another interest us in the social situation as well as in the ideas. The transactions of the Macy conferences on cybernetics are as good as a play but it is difficult to remember anything from them. Since the conference report usually aims to awaken interest and start communication, rather than to expound theories or report data, I see no reason to hold it to our ideal of impersonal scientific language. Why not take some advantage in it of the readability of discussion? At the same time, its content should certainly be made more memorable than it is in the cybernetics transactions. For the conference that meets too briefly to follow the Indiana plan it may be best to publish individual papers with brief commentary from the other members after each paper. This is the style of the *Nebraska Symposia on Motivation* and they are successful publications.

THE CONFERENCE report, like other kinds of writing, aims at unity in variety. Because the variety is parceled out to various organisms, the conference sometimes identifies unity with unanimity and hopes to achieve it by a show of hands. In other cases the covers of a book are thought to provide unity enough for any collection of ideas. They do not. The proper unity of a conference report is in discussion, even conflict, around a common set of problems.

Finally, after reading many conference reports of all kinds, it is my impression that this literature has already developed its own clichés. Some of these are clichés of individual participant roles and others are clichés of group practice. We could do without the Representative from Another Discipline who measures his words as if a slip might mean war. Nor should we mind if everyone forbore to urge the group to "consider the whole person." As for the logician who "assumes" a knowledge of Boolean algebra—he'd not be missed. Then, too, everyone may as well stop "throwing out research ideas"

because nobody is catching them. As for the inspirational closing that "points up the implications of this conference" for Mental Health, Secondary Education, and the Far East—why not just wait and see?

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Prophet and Scientist

Jerome Himelchoch and Sylvia Fleis Fava (Eds.)

Sexual Behavior in American Society: An Appraisal of the First Two Kinsey Reports
New York: W. W. Norton, 1955.
Pp. xvii + 446. \$5.00.

By JOHN MONEY
*The Johns Hopkins University
Medical School*

THE TECHNICIAN in science can never be accused of being a prophet, for his work calls for nothing more than the reapplication of theories and methods already endorsed.

By contrast, the scientific investigator

who presents something new and unendorsed in the way of procedure, information, or theory is always likely to be either worshipped or despised as a prophet. His worshippers will swallow whole his theory, method, and findings, their criticism submerged in adulation. Opponents of his work, too new or radical for them to endorse, will brand it as anathema.

Simply by undertaking and publishing his monumental sexual studies as he did, Kinsey risked being cast in the role of prophet of sexual frankness. To bring these studies before the public was to admonish the people to greater open-mindedness and less hypocrisy about sexual matters. Neither Kinsey nor anyone else had foreseen that the public was ready to respond with so widespread an interest. Nor had it been foreseen that the manner in which Kinsey and his associates collected their data and reported and published their information was so much better suited to incipient popular interest in sexual frankness than had previously been the case with any other sex book.

PUBLICATION of the Kinsey reports is, therefore, a major sociological phenomenon of the twentieth century. A subsidiary characteristic of this phenomenon is that social scientists already have begun documenting it. *Sexual Behavior in American Society* is one such document; it is an anthology of original and reprinted articles all written by professional people representing diverse professions. None of these articles would have been written had there been no Kinsey reports.

Among the contributors to this book, none berates Kinsey and his associates for bringing hitherto taboo sexual topics into the public forum. His most acrimonious critics pay homage to Kinsey on this count, even though, on other counts, they inveigh against him as a false prophet. Those who find fault with him most strongly do so on behalf of psychoanalysis, marriage counseling, and social science, though not in an official capacity.

There are thirty-eight papers in *Sexual Behavior in American Society*. Twelve of them are reports of original research, six concerning the social impact of the Kinsey books and six furnishing data that



—Photo by Dellenback

ALFRED C. KINSEY

can be compared with fragments of Kinsey's own data. Among the latter six, there is no serious disagreement with Kinsey's findings. In the case of a small Swedish study, quite uninfluenced by Kinsey and the Kinsey publications, a study of male sexual behavior, agreement with comparable Kinsey figures is so great as to be virtually a replication of Kinsey's percentages.

The remaining twenty-six papers in the volume are all evaluative. These evaluations fall into two classes. First, there are papers that evaluate a traditional sex code—legal, ethical, religious—in the light of the Kinsey reports. Though the authors of these papers are not uncritical of the Kinsey information, they do accept it in bold outline. Its value for them is that what people say about their sexual doings is extremely different from what the traditional codes assumed they would say. Therefore it is time to re-evaluate the codes.

Secondly, there are papers that evaluate the Kinsey writings in the light of a particular theory or doctrine—statistical, sociological, or psychological. The criticisms contained in these papers are, broadly speaking, of two varieties. On the one hand, there is criticism that pertains to absence of the technique of probability sampling in Kinsey's fieldwork, such that his findings cannot be generalized to apply to the population of the United States as a whole without possible distortions and inaccuracies of unascertained magnitude. On the other hand,

there is the criticism that pertains to limitations (often denounced as absurdities and falsities) in Kinsey's interpretation of his data, limitations resulting from his isolation of variables like sexual orgasm, social and occupational class, educational level, religious affiliation, and religious devoutness. The critics who attack on this score say that such variables, and many others as well, should not have been treated in isolation but as reciprocally interactive. These critics are inarticulately groping with conceptual and methodological problems that, at least in part, are answered when analysis of variance is applicable as a statistical technique. Since they offer no recipe for making a better cake than the one they eschew, their criticisms sound biased, dogmatic and carping, even condescending and holier-than-thou in spirit.

One of the most lucid, complete and fair-minded critiques in the anthology is the paper, *Statistical Problems of the Kinsey Report*, by Cochran, Mosteller, and Tukey. It may well serve as a model of how scientists of human behavior should always criticize one another in the future. It not only delineates shortcomings, but states whether and how these shortcomings may be corrected. When no method of correction is currently known, these critics do not blame Kinsey for not knowing it.

By contrast, one of the most murky, incomplete, and narrow-minded critiques in the anthology is the psychoanalytic one by Kubie. It may well serve as a model of how no scientist of human behavior should ever henceforth criticize another. It offers no formulae whereby the shortcomings pointed out could be overcome. Criticisms like this create schisms; they do not promote the advancement of science and the increase of knowledge.

IT IS A paradox that psychoanalysis, which has done so much in fifty years to break down the conspiracy of silence on sexual matters, emerges from this collection of critiques as the narrow-minded New Puritanism. Analytic doctrine betrayed some of its adherents into seeming to claim that they alone knew how to do sex research, that they alone had the right to define what is normal in sex behavior. 'Normal' is a term that they

habitually used ambiguously, interchanging its definition of 'statistically typical' with its definition of 'ideal, preferable or healthy.' In the final analysis, however, psychoanalytic disagreement with Kinsey stems from a much more basic issue, namely, the philosophic issue of a duality of mind and body.

The fact of the matter is that, whether they acknowledge it explicitly or not, psychoanalytic disciples write from the point of view that mind exists *sui generis* and is a causal agent or force in its own right. Further, they also write as if they believed that one investigates the phenomena of mind in some way totally different from Kinsey's method of investigation. They appear to overlook the obvious point of identity between themselves and Kinsey, namely, that they also carry on their investigations by listening to people talk and make other communicative signs. This oversight creates the impression that analysts have obtained their knowledge and information by revelation, empathic intuition, or by some other mysterious process.

Until this very fundamental issue of dualism of mind and body has been resolved and some common agreement reached, the disciples and the nondisciples of psychoanalysis will surely remain mutually unintelligible. They will continue to talk and write in two irreconcilable universes of discourse, as they do at present. Judging from the evidence of *Sexual Behavior in American Society*, it will not be possible for the two irreconcilable groups to maintain a peaceful co-existence. There is abundant evidence of a power struggle here. One may even discern the handwriting on the wall that psychoanalytic doctrine is losing and that, unless analysts expeditiously settle the issue of mind-body dualism, they will become a straggling remnant of alchemists of the mind.

In conclusion, let it be said that *Sexual Behavior in American Society* is a useful reference book. It avoids being simply another attempt to cash in on the Kinsey band wagon. Instead, it is a source book of documents about an episode of the history and sociology of our time. The editorial job has been extremely well done, and in its physical existence the book is up to the usual impeccable standards of W. W. Norton and Company.

Constitutional Theology

Hjalmar Helweg

Soul Sorrow: The Psychiatrist Speaks to the Minister (Trans. from the Danish by Jens Grano)

New York: Pageant Press, 1955. Pp. 151. \$3.00.

By RAYMOND J. MCCALL
De Paul University

DR. HELWEG, presently chief psychiatrist at the Copenhagen State Hospital, wrote these lectures some twenty-four years ago for delivery to the theological division of the University of Copenhagen. Addressed principally to the ministry and the informed Protestant laity, the book has been quite popular in Denmark, running to three editions.

Lest the title mislead, let us hasten to report that *Soul Sorrow* is for the most part a simplified exposition of psychopathology from a rigidly constitutional viewpoint, with appropriate corollaries on pastoral counseling and religious attitudes. Toward human aberration Helweg exhibits a tolerant fatalism, unmistakably in the tradition of nineteenth century medicine and equally innocent of psychological science.

To him psychic dispositions are, like basic physical characteristics, genotypes, determined by heredity and basically unaltered by experience. Inevitably, he contends, "the constitutional type ties down the individual." For the minister this demands a recognition of the constitutional determinants of the depressive, psychopathic, hysteric, paranoiac, and homosexual tendencies in many who seek his help, with no expectation of influencing their behavior by religious counsel. Even the 'mental incompatibility' of marriage partners, he will find, may turn out to be 'constitutional disparity.'

The "constitutional make-up also plays a great part in the religious development of the individual," he says. There are those "whose mental structure makes it impossible for them to build on religious ideas," and for these "the constitution will preclude religious development." On the other hand, the Freudian attack on religion fails, since whatever

the merits of Freud's critique, he overlooked the "constitutional differences" by reason of which "the spiritual concepts of God and religion are true necessities for many."

What applies to the individual holds also for religious movements, says Helweg. "A religious movement is determined by the constitutional elements of its founder and those that follow him will be greatly influenced by the same elements." It is in Mrs. Eddy's hysteria and Mme. Blavatsky's psychopathy that we should therefore seek the key to Christian Science and Theosophy. Even the Protestant church cannot, in view of its revival of the Augustinian conception of predestination, "be too much against the view that the psychic constitution...based on the hereditary factors" will determine the spiritual life for both founder and sect. Luther himself was "decidedly of pyknic-cyclothyme constitution" and "undoubtedly subjected to manic-depressive attacks." In his campaign against the Roman church "the cyclothyme basis gave the forthright standpoint, the manic element supplied the bright and dauntless striking power, and the depressive element gave the deep sense of repentance." The positions of Calvin and Ignatius Loyola can be similarly illuminated by reference to their schizothyme constitutions.

I have quoted freely in the effort to impart the full flavor of Helweg's transcendental hereditarianism. One can only speculate on the reaction of historical scholars to Helweg's rewriting in constitutional terms of ecclesiastical history and polity, but a widespread conversion of churchmen to Kretschmerian determinism on the grounds of its community with divine predestination seems unlikely. To a psychologist Helweg's clinical principles seem dusty, unevidenced, and circular, and his conception of psychological causation almost incredibly naive.

The translator's English is undistinguished, aside from an occasional neologism ("compulsatory"), solecism ("everything...are"), and near-miss ("race-hygiene" and "weak-minded" for "eugenics" and "feeble-minded"). All in all, the sufficient reason for the issuance of this work today is not manifest. It seems dated even by the standards of twenty-four years ago.

CP SPEAKS . . .

With pleasure and gratitude CP here reprints the editorial *Of Books and Reading* by Dr. Graham DuShane, as it was printed in *Science* on 27 April 1956.

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Last year a record 19,962 books were published in the United Kingdom and a near-record 12,589 in the United States. Whether we should regard the combined output of more than 30,000 books with pride or alarm is uncertain.

But perhaps the following two questions are more important: How well are the books assimilated? How many people read them? These questions can be answered, at least in part, thanks to the fact that for the last 20 years the American Institute of Public Opinion has been regularly surveying the reading habits of the American people. Through its affiliates abroad, the institute has gathered comparable information for several foreign countries.

In the United States no more than 17 percent of all adults were to be found reading books at the time of the most recent survey. This is in sorry contrast to the percentages in several other countries: Canada, 31; Australia, 34; England, 55.

The reading habits of our high-school and college graduates are likewise depressing: 57 percent of our high-school and 26 percent of our college graduates have not read a single book for the past year. A special study confined to college graduates showed that five out of six had not read a serious book outside their fields of special interest during the preceding several months.

We might hopefully suppose that, even though college graduates do not read much currently, they have some background of reading, some acquaintance with "the best that has been known and said." The results are again disappointing. The college graduates were asked to name the authors of the following books: *An American Tragedy*, *Babbitt*, *The Canterbury Tales*, *Gulliver's Travels*, *Leaves of Grass*, *The Old Wives' Tale*, *Utopia*, *Vanity Fair*, *The Origin of Species*, *The Wealth of Nations*, *The Rubaiyat*, and *The History of Tom Jones*.

Nine percent could not name the author of any one of these books and 39 percent could not name more than three authors. Of the same group of college graduates, only 55 percent could name any recently published book.

Perhaps the pocket-size books are filling the gap? Not so. Nine percent of the people who buy books of this kind account for 78 percent of all sales. Book clubs? Unfortunately, no. Although book clubs distribute millions of books annually to hundreds of thousands of readers, the effect is statistically unimportant.

Are there any indications of a change? Currently, as pointed out above, only 17 percent of all adults were reading a book at the time they were interviewed; the comparable figure in 1937 was 29 percent. The trend is apparently downward.

The statistics give evidence of a grave cultural inadequacy and an even graver cultural decline. Books, both new and old, play an important part, possibly an indispensable part, in the transmission of the ideas that hold a civilization together. The relatively small—and ap-

parently declining—number of people in the United States who read books should be a matter for general concern. We have heard much about Rudolf Flesch's book, *Why Johnny Can't Read*, a book that has been widely discussed. Whether or not Johnny can read is one thing, whether or not he does when he grows up is another. The answer apparently is: seldom.

—G. DuS.

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Next month CP will have something to say about the evidence that psychologists read books or don't read them and what CP thinks happens when a non-reader undertakes to review a book.



One reader—one of CP's Consultants, as a matter of fact—writes: "Personally I find the mixture of reviews from all fields, in one journal, a help. Previously one got this in the *Psychological Bulletin*, but not so satisfactorily, and I was less inclined to spend time reading reviews of books not really in my line. Now I think I do so to a greater degree. I find, however, that I still look to my non-APA speciality journals for reviews of books written for people in those specialities." This may be the solution of how one expert is to talk to another, provided the special journals are actually available. CP does not like having a clique of experts use its pages to talk to each other in some special jargon unintelligible to all the others. It is bad manners, like whispering in company, and it appropriates space from the many for the special use of the few. But, if there are experts around, frustrated by CP's simple catholicity, CP would like to hear about them.—E.G.B.



Our Society is indeed divided between the past and the future, and it will not reach a balanced and unified culture until the specialists in one field learn to share their language with those in another. The scientist has much to learn still, in language and thought, from the humane arts. But the scientist also has a share, a growing share, to contribute to culture, and humanism is doomed if it does not learn the living language and the springing thought of science.



—JACOB BRONOWSKI

People at Work

Henry Clay Smith

Psychology of Industrial Behavior

New York: McGraw-Hill, 1955. Pp. xv + 477. \$6.00.

By JOSEPH E. BARMACK
College of the City of New York

HERE IS a book about *people* rather than *personnel* in industry. The author has started with the premise that motivation is central to man's behavior and has carried the implications of this concept through the many human problems that beset people in business and industry. As a consequence, the book has the strength of dealing cogently with important and common problems, but it also has some of the weaknesses to be expected of a new and relatively uncultivated field. On the whole, the effort comes off very well.

The author's emphasis on motivation results in a dilution of the usually detailed presentation of such subjects as selection, boredom and fatigue, techniques of job analysis, and job evaluation among others; but he could argue (although he does not) that preoccupation with these areas has tended to make technicians out of psychologists. Because of it, many have surrendered to others the work on such important problems as dealing with or minimizing industrial conflict, achieving good union-management relations, defining the goals of industry, achieving an effective organization, and meeting simultaneously the needs of workers, managers, and consumers.

While the book is divided into five parts, there are three basic subdivisions. The first part provides the rationale for Smith's approach; the second, third, and fourth parts are its end products; and the fifth part is an applicatory summary.

IN THE first part Smith discusses the goals of management and labor, which he views against the complexity of human motives. The motives of people who labor and manage are varied and mostly unidentified and unexpressed by them.

Because conflict between labor and management frequently involves increasing wages or other managerial costs, the need for money has been identified by others as the prepotent motive for both. The author finds little support for this view. He reports that efforts to increase production by financial incentive systems alone have had indifferent success, espousing a program based on a broader spectrum of human needs.

Recognition of the variety and complexity of human motivation gives the psychologist a powerful tool in helping both management and labor lay out their realistic goals. The rational emerges more readily following an identification of the irrational. Rational goals then become the criteria for organization, staffing, and planning.

The use of rational goals as criteria makes it not only unnecessary but also undesirable for the industrial psychologist to be identified blindly with either management or labor instead of with working out means for achieving the realistic objectives of both. As a consequence, his role becomes truly professional rather than partisan.

In the second part of the book Smith considers a wide range of factors which interfere with need satisfaction. He includes in this category the machine, unemployment, accidents, caste, and other social barriers that interfere with satisfaction from a job.

While it is important to consider obstacles to need satisfaction, the author points out that a worker is more often anxious than frustrated. Accordingly, Smith devotes an entire chapter to this hitherto neglected area. The relationship of job satisfaction and emotional maturity, on the one hand, to productivity, on the other, he discusses extensively.

Rounding out the presentation of man's relation to his job are his chapters on job satisfaction, employee adjustment to the job, and one on fitting the machine to man.

The third part on man's relation to man contains a novel chapter on the causes of industrial conflict and union-management relations. For Smith, constructive cooperation between labor and management is the royal road to solving most of the human problems of industry. This objective can be achieved by a recognition

of one another's real goals. In the process, labor and management learn that they share many of their goals, on which they can readily collaborate. Some goals are independent but can be negotiated. There is a real hope that many of the goals which are now independent may be modified by relating them to the larger needs of a democratic society.

ONE WAY of describing the difference between this book and many older textbooks in industrial psychology is that it is problem-centered rather than method-centered. It does not magnify an area merely because a great deal of experimental work has accumulated on it, although Smith does indeed devote a chapter to experimental and other methods. For many reasons, the industrial psychologist must compromise certainty for expediency, being limited, as he is, by the time in which an answer is needed and by the nature of his problems. They are almost always polyvariate and rarely amenable to nice control. Ultimately he learns to wring from his data and his experience useful answers within a useful time. He leans heavily on questionnaires and attitude scales, and utilizes such performance criteria as absenteeism, turnover, and production.

The author also refers, though adventitiously, to a wide variety of clinical tools that the newer industrial psychologist uses: projective techniques, non-directive counseling, a knowledge of small group behavior, and apparently a great deal of clinical experience. It would have been helpful to the untrained but enthusiastic reader to recommend to him the kind of training that would make it possible for him to practice this type of psychology.

The consumer is the almost forgotten man in the book. A single chapter on the measurement of consumer attitudes to products is, however, included.

The final part of the book consists of a comprehensive presentation of problems in the form in which they present themselves in business and industry. Smith proposes remedies, together with ways of implementing them.

A number of books have recently been published with aims or content similar to that contained in this book (N.R.F. Maier, 1952; C. H. Lawshe, 1953; M. L.

Blum, 1956; Mason Haire, 1956). This abundance attests to the fact that industrial psychology is coming of age. Smith's book is an excellent reflection of this development. It will appeal to a wide audience, students and practitioners alike. It will give the reader perspective but not expertness in this field. No book can.

Psychology in Vista-Vision

A. A. Roback (Ed.)

Present-Day Psychology

New York: Philosophical Library, 1955. Pp. xiv + 995. \$12.00.

By CALVIN S. HALL
Western Reserve University

IT IS A TRUISM that the life-space of psychology as a science and a profession has become so large and so highly differentiated that no one person can hope to master the whole field. In order to help the psychologist keep abreast of recent trends and findings by providing him with vistas of fields that lie outside his own small area of competence, a rash of handbooks, anthologies, reviews, and selected readings have appeared in recent years. All of these volumes serve a useful purpose, and we are greatly indebted to each of those hardy (or foolhardy) individuals who has undergone the torments and frustrations of being the editor of a poly-authored volume.

The present book, edited by the indefatigable and peripatetic A. A. Roback, essays to explore and survey the continental limits and several offshore islands of present-day psychology. In this vast undertaking, which is misnamed a symposium, Roback has been joined by thirty-seven other authors; among them they have written a thousand-page book divided into forty chapters. The forty chapters are classified under the following headings: *Topical departments* (9 chapters) consisting of the usual subject-matter headings of perception, memory, attention, emotion, and personality; *Branches* (11 chapters) made up of the conventional fields of child, educational, social, abnormal, and so forth; *Dynamic and Clinical psychology* (12 chapters), a potpourri of points of

view and special techniques, e.g., psychosomatics, psychodrama, hypnotherapy; *Methods* (2 chapters), one statistical, the other integrational; and *Borderlands* (6 chapters) which includes the psychologies of art, religion, literature, and language. Each chapter is introduced by a brief, personalized, editorial note.

This is neither a conventional nor a comprehensive survey of current psychology. It slights some of the most hallowed topics (for instance, learning) and accords an extended treatment to tangential subjects (for instance, psycholinguistics). The applied areas of psychology loom large, the general experimental regions are treated minimally. Some idea of the prevailing winds of the book may be gauged by the number of page references following each name in the name index. (Unfortunately there is no subject index.) Freud leads the list with a whopping 80 citations, James is a poor second with 37, followed by Adler (29), Roback (28), Jung (26), and Murphy (21). Franz Alexander, Gordon Allport, Hebb, and McDougall each have 18, Binet, Postman, and Wundt 17, Bruner and Hull 15. From this analysis it would appear that psychoanalysis and personality are favorite topics, as indeed they are.

I AM in no position to review each of the contributions, nor, mercifully for the reader, have I been granted the requisite space. The book, like most such efforts, is unevenly written. There are good chapters and mediocre ones. Some of the contributors make an effort to give a balanced discussion of the topic assigned them, while others write from a highly personal frame of reference. Some chapters are heavily documented, others have few or no references. Some chapters are well organized and lucid, other chapters could have been improved by a firm editorial hand. The model chapter, in my opinion, is the one entitled *The Status of Emotion in Contemporary Psychology* by Magda Arnold. It has everything that a chapter in a book of this kind should have—balance, scope, discrimination, significance, readability, sagacity, and contemporaneity. Few other chapters measure up to this one, which is the longest one in the book.



A. A. ROBACK

Personally, I think Roback might have done better with fewer chapters and fewer contributors. How is it possible to cover adequately recent findings in neurology in seven thousand words, child psychology in six thousand, and psychometry in four thousand? If Roback had asked ten psychologists each to write a hundred-page essay on the current status in his area of competence, the book, I believe, would have been of greater service to the busy psychologist. Yet such a suggestion is probably unrealistic. Outstanding scientists do not ordinarily want to spend their time writing handbook articles—although it might be a good thing for science if they did. Consequently, the obligation for providing an up-to-date survey of various fields is often left to less authoritative spokesmen. Nevertheless, Roback has managed to line up some exceptionally well-qualified contributors, viz., John E. Anderson for child psychology, Karl C. Garrison for adolescence, J. P. Guilford for psychometry, Harold E. Burt for applied psychology, J. B. Rhine for parapsychology, J. L. Moreno for psychodrama and sociatry, and Rudolf Dreikurs for Adlerian psychology. In general, the roster of authors is a good one.

To a considerable degree *Present-day Psychology* supplements rather than overlaps other guidebooks to psychology and it deserves to be widely read.

What Counseling Is

Milton E. Hahn and Malcolm S. MacLean

Counseling Psychology (2nd Ed.)
New York: McGraw-Hill, 1955. Pp. xi + 312. \$4.75.

By ROBERT CALLIS
University of Missouri

THIS is not an exciting refreshing 'new' book; it is more properly described as a substantial, conventional, standard text. Because it is not apt to stir up controversy and be widely quoted and discussed, its importance and contribution can be easily underrated. It is a revised edition and like many revisions tends to be more encyclopedic and is certainly less novel than the original.

The book is written for use as a text in courses in methods of counseling. Its purpose is "to focus upon counseling with individuals who are faced with *vocational-educational-personal* problems." According to the authors "the heart of the counselor's work [is] the process of individual assessment." Herein lies the main strength and weakness of the book. If the primary aspect of the work of the counselor is psychological assessment of the client relative to educational-vocational choice and adjustment, then the book may be said to be excellent and the authors to have achieved their objective. On the other hand, if assessment is a necessary but only partial specification of this process called counseling, then the book must needs be inadequate in its coverage and its title *Counseling Psychology* is misleading, implying, as it does, broader coverage of content than is actually presented.

The five-year period between the first edition and the present one (1950-1955) has produced many important publications pertinent to counseling psychology. During this period significant professional developments have occurred. The authors have made extensive references to this newer literature and have changed the content of their book to reflect most of the newer developments. They consider what a counseling psychologist is, particularly the uniqueness of the counselor with

respect to other psychologists and other disciplines. The counselor is a *practicing* psychologist, that is to say, counseling is the practice of psychology outside the classroom and laboratory. His clientele is 'normal'; he deals with the normal, more quickly resolved problems and leaves the deviates to the psychotherapists. His way of thinking about clients and dealing with them is based on three fundamental notions: (a) psychological traits, (b) motivation, needs, and drives, and (c) learning theories. Anxiety and anxiety-reduction play a crucial role in counseling, when viewed as a problem in learning. In no single item is the counseling psychologist unique, but in total pattern he is indeed unique from other psychologists and other practitioners of behavioral science.

CHAPTERS 2, 11, and 13 are new with the second edition. Coming on the heels of a clear, succinct history of counseling in Chapter 1, the discussion of philosophy and ethics in Chapter 2 sets the stage very nicely for the remainder of the book. In searching for the key principle in the philosophy of counseling, Hahn and MacLean start with the one offered by Rogers, which can be stated something like this: Each individual has a sufficient capacity to deal constructively with all those aspects of his life which can potentially come into conscious awareness. They then add to Rogers' notion (each individual has a built-in growth force) the notion that persons obtain better life adjustments as a result of a learning process in which the counselor acts as a catalytic agent. Thus, they arrive at a key principle to explain human behavior in which the source of energy, the nature of the process, and the catalyst are all specified.

The discussion on ethics is a brief recapitulation of the salient, pertinent points in the APA code.

Chapters 3 through 10 are essentially the same as in the first edition with a few minor modifications and embellishments. The nature of educational-vocational-personal problems, tools and techniques of assessment, psychological traits (abilities, skills, achievements, interests), and case study techniques are discussed. These topics are system-

atically and competently presented. Chapter 10 purports to deal with the counseling interview, but even here the major theme is still assessment. In fact, the authors pay little attention to the counseling interview in the whole book. The reader will have to rely on other sources, such as Rogers' books, for adequate discussion of the counseling interview.

Chapter 11 on learning, anxiety reduction, and counseling is a welcome addition in the second edition. Although it is impossible to do justice to learning theory and anxiety in eleven pages, it is possible to review briefly those few key ideas on these topics that are pertinent to counseling and to refer the reader to more elaborate discussions of these topics. This the authors have done quite well.

In an attempt to distinguish between counseling psychologists and clinical psychologists, psychiatrists, and social workers, the authors point up an important professional characteristic of the counseling psychologist, one which is not always characteristic of the clinical psychologist or the social worker. The counseling psychologist almost always assumes full, individual, independent, professional responsibility for his work and is answerable to no other profession or professional person for his work. (Professional responsibility is, of course, to be distinguished from administrative responsibility.)

The publishers have packaged Drs. Hahn and MacLean's ideas in an attractive and readable volume.

Adolescence, Biology, Culture

William W. Wattenberg

The Adolescent Years

New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1955.
Pp. xiii + 510.

By LOIS MEEK STOLZ
Stanford University

THIS is a textbook for use with classes in adolescent psychology, prepared with the usual teaching helps at the end of each chapter, including additional readings, audio-visual aids and suggestions for further study.

In organization, however, and to a lesser extent in content, the book differs from the usual textbook, for the author had undertaken the very difficult task of integrating the widely disparate studies in the field of adolescence around a central core or point of view. He says: "The task of the student, therefore, is to take the information available from the several fields and, knowing its limitations as well as its virtues, blend it into a coherent pattern" (p. 21). The pattern is well described by Hilgard in his introduction, where, referring to Dr. Wattenberg's interpretation of adolescent behavior, he states: "He shows that the interplay of biological and cultural patterns is complex, and that the individual modes of weaving the strands of development together are legion."

THE structure of the book is clear-cut, including four divisions: overviews, formative influences, problem areas, practical implications. In using it as a text, I found that Chapters 4, 5, 6 in the part described as "overview" somewhat take the cream off of the rest of the book. These chapters discuss developmental tasks, causes of change, characteristics, and cultural influences for three levels of adolescence. In Parts B and C that follow, certain aspects of these topics are discussed in more detail. This is the technique of introducing the subject by a panoramic view and here, it seemed to me, the telescopic lens of the camera resolved the detail so precisely that the subsequent close-ups lost interest.

The problem of how to divide the period of adolescence (which may extend over a decade) into sublevels of development is a difficult one. There is a divergence among the specialists in child development in both terminology and, more importantly, in the criteria they employ to designate the divisions. Dr. Wattenberg has used three levels which he designates as *pre-adolescence*, *adolescence*, and *youth*. Yet, from his criteria, *pre-adolescence* is really the beginning of adolescence, for its onset follows childhood and it ends with physical maturity. It might have been clearer if the author had called this the first stage of adolescence and given it a subtitle like pre-puberal phase or early adolescence. The second phase, which

the author designates as *adolescence*, is said to begin when, among other changes, the body has matured and heterosexual interests are active. This is really a second phase of adolescence or postpuberal phase. Students become confused when a text by its terminology leads them to believe that this is *adolescence*. The third level in Wattenberg's book, *youth*, is, as the author indicates, a postadolescent period or young adulthood.

Wattenberg has followed a pattern set by others in using this terminology, but I should like to make a plea that the term *pre-adolescent* be discarded and that some other term that semantically acknowledges this as an important aspect of adolescence be used. Actually, this is the most important period of adolescence from the standpoint of physiological development and in some ways from the standpoint of self reorientation.

Mention should be made of the wealth of illustrative material throughout this text. No other comparable book makes boys and girls so alive and interesting. These seem to be real adolescents living today, some with problems, some in mischief, a lot of them enjoying life fully. The text is well illustrated both with graphs and attractive line drawings. It is a book that holds the attention of undergraduate students because of its readable style and documentation.



Hypnosis Academicized

R. M. Dorcus (Ed.)

Hypnosis and Its Therapeutic Applications

New York: McGraw-Hill, 1956. Pp. x + 312. \$7.50.

By PAUL C. YOUNG
Louisiana State University

THIS book is not so much an integrated textbook on hypnosis as it is a collection of twelve reviews of the literature by seven authors covering the theoretical, experimental, and therapeutic aspects of hypnosis. Conformable to the editor's claim and despite the shortcomings noted below, it is the best presentation extant for the

editor's purpose, namely, to serve as both text and reference book for medical practitioners registered in the Division of Postgraduate Medical Education, Extension Division, University of California at Los Angeles. Its publication signals the entrance of hypnosis into the university curriculum, albeit of the Extension Division.

In this book F. A. Pattie has three chapters, dealing with theory, the inductive methods, and the genuineness of certain phenomena; F. J. Kirkner, two chapters on sensory and perceptive functions and use in a general hospital service; T. R. Sarbin, one chapter on physiological effects; R. M. Dorcus, two chapters on the influence of hypnosis on learning and formation of habits, and use as a diagnostic tool; and each of the following has one chapter: M. V. Kline, symptom control; G. W. Shaffer, supportive therapy; Harold Lindner, hypnoanalysis; and G. F. Kuehner (D.D.S.) hypnosis in dentistry. One must thank Dorcus for not rehashing at the beginning of each chapter the materials therein, which for the most part are stated clearly and give fair condensations of the area assigned. Apparently editorial alertness accounts for the fact that there is very little repetition in the book. Even the review-like bibliographies at the end of most chapters have surprisingly few duplications.

Compared with other books in the same field, Dorcus' work, except the part dealing with theories, does not give nearly so well-rounded a view of hypnosis as does Le Cron's much longer *Experimental Hypnosis*, nor does Dorcus' book give nearly so practical, nor so thorough and so prescriptive an account of the applications of hypnosis as does Schneck's *Hypnosis in Modern Medicine*.

The book, then, is at its best in the theoretical and experimental areas. Pattie's large contribution is excellent, as is also Sarbin's. Pattie, however, omits entirely the question of antisocial uses and seems to admit the genuineness of the 'ablation' type of regression, basing his conclusion upon results obtained by Hidro-Frank and by True and Stephenson, whereas Sarbin, correctly, this reviewer thinks, demands more and better controls before taking these results at their face value. Nor does Pattie employ

the differentiation between the 'revivification' (ablation) type of regression and the merely memorial type. He makes the distinction regarding *theory*, but not regarding supposed *fact*. Recent unpublished experiments by the reviewer lead him to believe that the extent of reinstatement of earlier-age responses is inversely proportional to the length of the incursion into the individual's past history.

Other shortcomings are the omission of any real discussion of hypnosis in obstetrics and the outline-like handling of all aspects of therapy. Kirkner's contribution seems to the reviewer a stilted and in some places (e.g., Chapter 3) ingenuous oversimplification of the data; and some of his "indicated findings" run beyond the far from univocal data (e.g., numbers 3 and 6, p. 37, stating that positive and negative visual and auditory hallucinations are "demonstrable," meaning genuine).

In brief, the present work is adequate regarding theories and experimental background, but it is short and in most places thin as regards therapy, especially when one remembers that it was written for practitioners. This lack of practical demonstrations, of *verbatim seriatim* procedures and techniques for using hypnosis in a medical setting (including different sample rigmaroles for inducing hypnosis, types of suggestions usable with specific cases, and detailed case studies rather than short descriptions) can perhaps be accounted for by the fact that all the contributors are psychologists except Kuehner, a dentist, against whom this criticism does not apply. In contrast, Schneck's contributors were ten medical men and one psychologist (W. T. Heron) and Le Cron's were twelve medical men and eight psychologists. In planning his book, Dorcus ignored or flouted the fact that hypnosis is a shared specialty, medical men having continuously contributed much to its theory, much more than have psychologists to its medical applications. The offerings of these psychologists in diagnosis and therapy smack of the laboratory and lecture hall, not of the surgical and obstetrical wards, or the consulting rooms in a general hospital. If this book should be revised, it might well take account of this dual character of hypnosis, by a sharing of

authorship with such medical men as Raginsky, H. Rosen, Schneck, Gorton, Erickson, and Kroger. In the meantime, to get a well-rounded view of hypnotic therapy, Dorcus' practitioners may need, after all, to read extensively in Schneck, Wolberg, and Rosen.

Hunger: Data and Dilemma

Roy W. Miner (Ed.)

The Regulation of Hunger and Appetite (*Annals of The New York Academy of Sciences*, Vol. 63, Art. 1)

New York: New York Academy of Sciences, 1955. Pp. 144. \$3.00.

By JOHN K. BARE

The College of William and Mary

FOR THOSE interested in the physiology of hunger, as most readers of elementary textbooks should be and the authors seem to be, the anticipation aroused by this volume is not easily equalled. Here is a report of a conference of the leading physiologists who have been concerned with the problem: Mayer, Brobeck, Grossman, Janowitz, Quigley and Hollander, and others. Even a psychologist, Neal Miller, is included. A majority of the papers are critical reviews of experimental studies. An integration of current views by Grossman is promised. Verbatim reports of discussions that follow the papers appear. In the brief introduction, Conference Chairman Hollander lays solid groundwork by expressing his own satisfaction with an operational definition of hunger and voicing the hope that the conference will at least achieve definitional agreement.

One postpones the reading of related, interesting, but peripheral reports on attitude changes in dieters, the action of deleterious compounds, results of chronic toxicity tests, and hunger in a jejunos-tomized human patient, to turn eagerly to the papers centered about the problem of the physiological concomitants of hunger. But, read consecutively or randomly, the papers begin to become disconnected.

Quigley examines the data and logic of the conclusions from hunger-contraction studies and is personally convinced of their importance. He cites evidence

to indicate that the contractions occur in denervated pouches, but concludes that blood-sugar level "has no causal relation to the spontaneous periods of hunger contractions." How the contractions might be produced he leaves unsettled.

Mayer, in presenting his glucostatic theory with care, nods to hunger contractions (in parentheses) and proposes that "somewhere, possibly in the hypothalamic centers shown to be implicated in the regulation of food intake, perhaps peripherally as well, there are glucoreceptors sensitive to the blood glucose in the measure that they can utilize it."

On the other hand, Brobeck (who also nods to the contractions), while drawing an analogy between eating behavior and other reflexes and emphasizing the influence of the hypothalamus on the "final common path," does not believe that there is conclusive evidence that glucose receptors exist in the hypothalamus. He proposes that the initiation and cessation of eating are determined by a multiplicity of variables, including a "lowered glucose supply."

Grossman agrees with this multi-variable position, then acts as arbiter on the blood-sugar problem, and concludes that the data are controversial. Obviously they are.

FURTHER problems arise. The introductory plea of the chair is acknowledged and ignored; the independent variable is individualistically defined. Quigley makes hunger equivalent to the "disagreeable sensations associated with the inadequate intake of food." Mayer begins his article with a Merriam-Webster definition of hunger and is convinced that most researchers mean sensations and feelings. Brobeck apparently simply assumes that food intake is the one important measure of hunger, but seeks to separate the initiation and the cessation of the behavior. Grossman defines hunger as "a complex of sensations" and appetite as "the desire for food, an affective state." Neal Miller properly caps this discussion by indicating briefly but forcibly that hunger can be operationally defined in a number of ways, and that the definitions are not equivalent, at least as measured in the laboratory.

Perhaps the frustrated hopes of the present reviewer are now showing. For a survey of the experimental literature that might otherwise be overlooked, for brief reports of experiments not yet published in detail, for secondary source material on the topic, for insights into the thinking trends of physiologists not readily available at conventions for questioning, the book has no equal. The range of the problem, from definitions to conclusions, is spelled out. Data in great abundance are surveyed for the empiricist. There is enough food for thought by the theoretician to provide him with many nights of indigestion. Problems are suggested to the experimentalist on every page. The New York Academy of Sciences deserves appreciation for making the symposium possible. It has strengthened its reputation for sponsoring the right conference at the right time.

THREE minor notes of criticism of the format may be offered. Bibliographies still appear in many different forms; the most unsatisfactory omit the title of the reference. The contents are divided into three parts: Regulatory Mechanisms, Disorders of Regulation, and Clinical Aspects. The integration paper appears under Disorders, and Neal Miller's paper on the results of different measurement techniques is classified as a Clinical Aspect. Finally, the paper covers on the volume will not stand up well under the use that a serious student of the physiology of hunger ought to give it.

Unconscious Economics

Walter A. Weisskopf

The Psychology of Economics

Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1955. Pp. viii + 266. \$4.00.

By NEIL J. SMELSER
Harvard University

THIRTY years ago McDougall questioned some basic economic assumptions by producing an array of non-economic instincts. More recently George Katona has attempted

to prove that gestalt principles account for economic behavior more comprehensively than do the utilitarian assumptions of economic theory. To this incipient tradition of psychological critiques we must now add the name of Professor Weisskopf and the psychocultural method.

This psychocultural approach, like the sociology of knowledge, is a "transcendent" approach. It "involves the application of a new [largely psychoanalytical] frame of reference to systems of thought." By close textual investigation the psychocultural analyst locates the theorist's basic conflicts, hostilities, anxieties, rationalizations, etc., and thereby throws light on the theory's content and logic.

Professor Weisskopf discovers, for instance, that the contradictions in Adam Smith's labor theory of value spring from his unconscious struggle to reconcile the moral conflict between "Puritanism and Lockian philosophy" and "the system of private property and the exchange economy." Similar treatments of Ricardo's theory of value and of male and female symbolism in Ricardo, Malthus, Marx, and Engels should stimulate (if not infuriate) economists and should produce a turn (if not a whirl) in the graves of their professional ancestors.

The analysis would have been even more exciting if the author had included Keynes in his discussion of the disintegration of economic rationalism since Marshall. Indeed, since Keynes is the most outstanding post-Marshallian economist and since he relies on irrational determinants of economic behavior, the omission is serious.

The psychocultural approach to knowledge involves, however, a serious paradox, one which appears, for instance, when the author argues for the symbolic identification of "female" and "mother" with land as an economic factor in Malthus' and Ricardo's theory of long-term development. The law of diminishing returns of land, the principle of population and the subsistence theory of wages together make land, like the devil, the cause of "all the unfortunate results... in the theory of economic development." Of course these "sexual, erotic and biopsychological factors" interact with "sociocultural and intellec-

tual factors" as determinants of the theory. It seems odd, however, that Professor Weisskopf does not number among these determinants the obvious economic fact that England's population was mushrooming and its agricultural limitations were becoming progressively more evident when Malthus and Ricardo wrote.

Again we are told that, in Marshall's demand-supply equilibrium, "the fact that the equilibrium pattern is presented as a construct and not as reality indicates an inner doubt [on Marshall's part] of the validity of the concept." Should not the opposite, however, also be true? The equilibrium pattern satisfies the scientific canon that positive analysis cannot proceed without a stable set of explicit reference points. Hence on scientific grounds the construct of equilibrium should generate a degree of confidence, no doubt.

WHAT LIES behind this apparent paradox which appears periodically in Professor Weisskopf's original analysis? He mentions two frames of reference with which economic thought may be criticized: (1) the canons of scientific adequacy, such as logical consistency and empirical verifiability, and (2) the transcendent psychocultural approach. But the difference between the two is not simply "a difference in the choice of the frame of reference," as the author holds. The two frames overlap. Perhaps a theorist includes an element in his theory because it meets the norms of scientific analysis; perhaps he resolves an unconscious conflict. *But when he does both at once*, it is impossible to determine whether this element persists because of its psychocultural significance or its scientific adequacy or both. This is why Professor Weisskopf's analysis of the vaguer elements of economic thought, like ideologies, seems more convincing than his critique of the technical tools, like equilibrium analysis. The vaguer elements are not so likely to be contaminated with the possibility that they are simply good science.



Freudian Hornbook

Charles Brenner

An Elementary Textbook of Psychoanalysis

New York: International Universities Press, 1955. Pp. 219. \$4.00.

By JOHN P. SPIEGEL
Harvard University

THE TITLE of this book is misleading; it should have been called *A Primer of Freudian Theory*. The reader of a textbook is entitled to expect a fairly broad coverage of a stated field. The inclusion of the term *elementary* in the title is a signal to anticipate a superficial but nonetheless extensive approach. On these grounds one could reasonably hope that an elementary textbook of psychoanalysis would cover the clinical and theoretical aspects of psychoanalysis as a pure and applied science. Such, however, is not this author's aim. He sets out to give the uninformed reader a literary-digest, a capsuled review, of the most abstract and theoretical aspects of Freud's thought. In simple language and with the briefest of illustrative examples, he pictures the historical development of Freud's theory of the drives, of the psychic apparatus, of anxiety, of the stages of maturation, of dreams and wit, and, in a final brief chapter, of psychopathology.

It is perhaps symptomatic of the primitive and undeveloped stage of psychoanalysis as a science that the author of this text is unable to differentiate between Freud as the discoverer and founder of psychoanalysis and psychoanalysis as a current and going field of activity. He writes from the implicit assumption that psychoanalysis is Freud and that his job is, therefore, to take the reader gently by the hand and conduct him through the twistings and turnings of Freud's more theoretical works. At the end of each chapter he gives a remarkably truncated list of suggested readings, but with three exceptions these references are all to further reading in Freud's collected works. Throughout the text one hears only the dimmest echoes of the contemporary ferment of activity, of the

application of psychoanalytic theory and practice to new areas, such as psychosis, juvenile delinquency, and psychosomatic illness, and of the growth of new insights stemming from the psychoanalytic study of the child.

To all this there would be no objection had Brenner been able to clarify his purposes. There is a need for just such a review of the most basic points in the development of Freud's theory, and in the main the author satisfies this need. He writes in a clear style, weaving together complex issues without falsifying the sometimes intricate web of Freud's thought. He avoids the usual pitfalls of the popular or introductory text—selective oversimplification—so that the reader can be assured that nothing has been omitted nor made too easy. On the other hand, he consistently shuns the critical attitude, even where criticism of Freud is quite obviously called for. On occasion this practice makes his writing sound needlessly defensive and, at times, even obscure. For example, in discussing Freud's ideas concerning the "actual" neuroses as distinguished from the psychoneuroses, Brenner states, "However, this particular assumption of Freud's has relatively little practical significance, since the diagnosis of actual neurosis is rarely if ever made at present." An evasive understatement! It implies that clinicians have merely gotten out of the habit of making the diagnosis, whereas the truth of the matter is that no one can find the condition Freud described as an "actual" neurosis, and the whole distinction fails to find a basis in observable fact.

SOME DAY a writer with extensive experience in the practice and teaching of psychoanalysis will write a review of Freud's theory which is both accurate and critical, and which has no personal axe to grind. Until then this book will serve a useful purpose for students who are seeking a brief and lucid summary of the principal elements in Freud's theory of the human mind.



Adjustable Man

Franziska Baumgarten

Die Regulierungskräfte im Seelenleben

Bern: A. Francke, 1955. Pp. 138. S.Fr. 2.80.

By HANS H. STRUPP
School of Medicine, The George Washington University

THE SIMPLICITY and elegance of single explanatory constructs has always intrigued philosophers and scientists alike. It is not a uniquely German characteristic, although it may be argued that the Germans have a particular affinity for it. The author of this slim 'pocket book' is firmly in this tradition. She feels that the regulatory forces in mental life have received insufficient attention in the psychological literature and proceeds to elevate this function to a position of preeminence in the understanding of man. It is instructive from several points of view to observe how her attempt is made.

According to Baumgarten, it is apparent that man does certain things when faced with misfortune; he does not accept adversity fatalistically, but tries rather to come to terms with the situation. In other words, he is concerned with re-establishing a disturbed equilibrium. This process can be called *the regulatory function*, many of whose diverse forms are brought together under the heading "consolation." Pointing out that common parlance does not distinguish the process from its effects, the author devotes some twenty-five short sections to "varieties of consolation." The following examples illustrate her range of topics: forgetting, self-admonishment, fantasy, belief in God, revenge, the triumph of justice.

Since these phenomena play a part in helping the individual to adjust to his unhappiness, Baumgarten reasons, they exemplify the regulatory process. Why? Because proverbs, folklore, as well as the great philosophers and poets say so. Is it surprising that Baumgarten always finds an appropriate quotation to prove her point?

In Section II the author considers the broader problem of human actions and their consequences from the point of

view of regulatory forces. At various points, she moralizes; for example: "Such conduct [blaming others] is nothing but cowardice, lack of a sense of responsibility, and dishonesty towards oneself and others. . . . It cannot be condemned too strongly" (p. 75).

The theoretical section is very brief and adds little to what has been repetitiously asserted throughout. The common denominator of mental functioning is self-regulation, which is further characterized as creative, goal-directed, and serving an emergency function. Nor does the principle of homeostasis in physiology, cited by the author as an analogy, enhance the heuristic value of the construct. Colby's recent criticism in his *Energy and Structure in Psychoanalysis* (1955) seems particularly apropos in this connection:

One way of overcoming the theoretical difficulties involved in numbering and classifying drives is to postulate one, say the life drive. Then all human behavior can be viewed as the filling of a single prescription. But like all single explanatory principles of complex processes, the resulting simplification is grotesque. Complexities can be whisked away by any monism, but the theoretical problems are thereby only dismissed, not solved . . . homeostasis is a descriptive and not an explanatory construct. It only describes the fact that organismic processes seek to stabilize themselves within optimal ranges, but it does not explain the mechanisms of how this stabilization is brought about. Homeostasis is an observable result, not a specific excitatory determinant (p. 40).

BAUMGARTEN'S book is a representative example of that variety of German psychology, which is deeply rooted in the writings of the great philosophers and poets, whose approach is purely *geisteswissenschaftlich*, and which has been quite impervious to the thinking and the methodologies of modern science. To the student of psychology trained in the American tradition, this brand of 'science' is foreign, and he is likely to be impatient with both the looseness of the concepts and the manner in which anecdotal evidence is used to support sweeping generalizations. On the positive side, however, he cannot be but impressed with the author's breadth of knowledge of world literature and her emphasis on the 'significant' aspects of

human experience. I imagine that a book like this is going to be largely ignored by American psychologists, chiefly because it belongs to a phase in the development of psychology as a science, which, for better or for worse, has been left far behind.

The Fittest Men

Theodosius Dobzhansky

Evolution, Genetics, and Man

New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1955. Pp. ix + 398. \$5.50.

By GERALD E. MCCLEARN

Allegheny College

AS DOBZHANSKY comments in his preface, the theory of evolution is pivotal to modern biology. His aim in this book is to describe the theory as it is currently understood and to demonstrate its humanistic implications. In the pursuit of this goal, he gives the subject-matter of genetics considerable emphasis, as, indeed, is necessary; in addition, however, the reader is led on a fascinating tour through almost the entire province of biology.

Somewhat less than a third of the book is devoted to genetics per se, but the coverage is remarkably broad, including many topics from active contemporary research and theorizing as well as from the 'classical' genetics.

Following this basic material, the author describes the mode of action of natural selection. Then he follows up with several chapters showing how selection has operated in producing the diversified and more or less well-adapted forms of life existing today and in the past. Along the way, he introduces the reader to the problems of species formation, definition of races, hybrid vigor, drug-resistant bacteria, sex determination, and many others. As told here, the stories of the research into the origins of cotton and corn remain two of the most intriguing of all scientific detective stories.

The material presented in the last two chapters, *Human Evolution*, and *Choice, Guidance, and Freedom in Evolution*, is of particular interest to psychologists. It will probably also make them uncomfortable, or maybe even combative, for here the author tackles

the problems of instinct, culture, mind, free will, and intelligence. It appears sometimes that Dobzhansky is skating on thin ice, as when he says, "Biological evolution has produced the genetic endowment which has made culture and freedom of choice possible" (p. 375, italics mine); or when he states, "It is man's moral sense which makes him truly human" (p. 376). At other times, the ice is firm: "The biological uniqueness of the human genotype lies in the fact that it permits a greater degree of educability than the genes of any other biological species" (p. 375). On at least one occasion, the ice breaks: "Heredity of mental, emotional and personality development is mostly conditioning, not destiny" (p. 375).

Perhaps these points are semantic; in any case they reveal the paucity of hard-headed data concerning behavioral evolution.

The justification for psychological animal research is to be found within the theory of evolution, and this reviewer believes that maximal fruitfulness of such research depends upon a reasonable understanding of evolutionary implications. It is to be feared that the environmentalist tradition has, by and large, impeded such understanding. For rectifying this situation, it would be difficult to find a better single source than this book. It is written in a comprehensive but highly readable style, and the publishers have done a good technical job. It can be strongly recommended.



Undisciplined and Interdisciplinary

Harold A. Abramson (Ed.)

Problems of Consciousness

New York: Josiah Macy, Jr. Foundation, 1955. Pp. 180. \$3.50.

By ROBERT A. MCCLEARY

University of Michigan

THIS publication is the report of the proceedings of the fifth (and last) Conference on the Problems of Consciousness and it raises the question as to whether all conferences should feel

automatically obliged to publish. It is difficult to imagine what useful purpose a book such as this can serve.

There is nothing wrong with either the writing of the four contributing authors or the book as viewed from the standpoint of a publisher's product. It is the over-all content of the volume that raises the doubts. Since the book clearly mirrors (verbatim!) the thoughts and discourses of the participants in the conference, its faults must be sought in the conference itself.

THE CONFERENCE was of the abbreviated (three days), interdisciplinary variety. It certainly did not fail in being interdisciplinary. There were representatives from psychology, anatomy, physiology, endocrinology, embryology, anthropology, anesthesiology, and psychiatry with the balance of representation in the clinical direction. Being interdisciplinary, however, is not in itself enough—there must be a plan.

Important requirements for a conference plan would seem to be, first, a well-defined problem area and, second, participants with something to contribute in the area. Since the latter requirement is clearly unachievable in the absence of the former, it need only be mentioned that the first requirement did not appear to be satisfied in the conference reported via the present book. One might be led to suspect this difficulty simply from the title.

The effect of this lack of 'direction,' as it manifested itself both in the course of the conference and, in turn, in the published report, is what might be expected. Aside from the highly general introductory and summary chapters, there are four content chapters: (1) *Three Dimensions of Emotion* (Schlossberg), (2) *Anxiety* (Grinker), (3) *The Role of the Cerebral Cortex in the Development and Maintenance of Consciousness* (Kleitman), and (4) *Aesthetics* (Robinson). These content chapters represent the reports of the four separate authors and there is little or no continuity in the handling of the topics they individually elected to consider.

Probably the most disconcerting thing about this book is the large amount of space given over to verbatim reporting of the spontaneous discussion of the

thirteen participants. Of the 161 pages of text, 104 pages are, in part or in entirety, made up of such material. In the absence of any attempt to keep the discussion moving along any systematic lines, the results might be said to be a verbal kaleidoscope. It is neither very enlightening nor very pleasant reading.

It is not supposed that these aspects of the conference (and the book) are unnoticed by the participants. The medical director of the Josiah Macy, Jr. Foundation specifically commends the conference for being an "unstructured meeting" and feels that there are too few of its type. The question raised by this review is whether there is any reason to have such meetings perpetuated in the form of unstructured books.

One of the participants comments in the last chapter, "What we as a group have got from these conferences, does not, I think, emerge for an outside reader." Speaking as one outside reader, this reviewer agrees.



The Lonely Suicide

Peter Sainsbury

Suicide in London

London: Chapman and Hall for The Institute of Psychiatry, 1955. Pp. 116. 15 s.

By DAVID J. BORDUA
University of Michigan

THIS short, packed, volume is subtitled *An Ecological Study*. It continues a genre quite familiar to American students of suicide and other types of deviant behavior.

The actual research reported is based on two complementary methods of investigation. The first is a correlational analysis of the association of suicide rates for the period of 1929-1933 with certain sociological features of twenty-nine civil divisions of metropolitan London. The second research method—really a separate study—is the analysis of coroner's records for 409 cases of suicide in five boroughs comprising North London during the period 1936-38. The two procedures allow determination of the degree to which 'ecological' correlates of

suicide rates also appear in the study of individual cases.

FOUR TYPES of sociological and social-psychological variables are employed in the two closely related substudies. These are socioeconomic-status factors, social-isolation factors, population-mobility factors and social-disorganization factors.

The most outstanding finding of both parts of the study is the positive relation between social isolation and suicide. Not only are suicide rates higher in London areas with high percentages of inhabitants living alone, in lodging houses, etc., but the individual suicides are much more likely to have been living alone than others in the populations in which the suicides occurred. This factor of social isolation seems to account for the positive relationship between social class and suicide, since in both middle-class and poorer boroughs suicide rates are high in areas of isolation and lower in areas of lesser isolation.

Social disorganization indices associated with high suicide rates are divorce and illegitimacy.

The juvenile delinquency rate is negatively related to suicide rate, a relationship quite contrary to American findings, as the author points out. There is a significant ecological difference between London and American cities. In London the areas of rooming houses, isolation, and high mobility are predominantly middle-class in status. Thus the factors of social isolation and poverty are separated.

A strong point of this study is the fact that these social-psychological correlates of suicide appear in both the rate analysis and the analysis of individual cases.

It is interesting to compare Sainsbury's findings with the attempt at a systematic theory of suicide presented recently by Andrew F. Henry and James F. Short, Jr. (*Suicide and Homicide*).

The finding of Sainsbury on social isolation agrees strongly with Henry and Short's conception of the "horizontal restraint" attendant on close social ties as a factor inhibiting suicide.

This review is but a brief citation of results that constitute a valuable addition to the literature on suicide.

Needs Nurturance, Affiliation, Recognition

Molly Harrower (Ed.)

Medical and Psychological Teamwork in the Care of the Chronically Ill (Proceedings of a conference sponsored by the Josiah Macy, Jr. Foundation and The University of Texas Medical Branch, 28-31 March 1954.)

Springfield, Ill.: Charles C Thomas, 1955. Pp. xii + 232. \$5.75.

By T. W. RICHARDS
Louisiana State University

WHAT HAPPENS when psychologists ask other people to help define a role for them is well illustrated in this chronicle of a conference held at Galveston, Texas, in March 1954. The question before the conference was: "What can be done to obtain the most effective use of the rising and rapidly growing profession of clinical psychology... to assist the general practitioner and the internist to handle effectively the psychological problems which he sees in his chronically ill patients?" Organizers of the conference were Molly Harrower, a psychologist, and The Macy Foundation, largely personified by its Medical Director, Frank Fremont-Smith, a psychiatrist.

Of the some thirty persons participating a fourth were medical administrators (deans, for instance) and the remainder was about equally divided among teachers or executives in three fields: internal medicine, psychiatry, and clinical psychology.

Within an atmosphere of teamwork and mutual congratulation, hostility on the part of the psychiatrists, rugged individualism on the part of the internists and hesitancy by the psychologists crop up repeatedly. It soon becomes apparent that the role of the psychologist most (and almost exclusively) familiar to physicians is that of psychometrician.

Those most at home with the chronically disabled—the internists—were least aware of a need to team up with anyone in caring for them. They were curious to

learn how psychologists and psychiatrists might help.

Seeming to take for granted a legitimate place in treating the chronically disabled, psychiatrists directed their energies mainly toward two objectives. They were concerned, first, that in any liaison between medicine and psychology, psychiatry must serve as entrepreneur. Secondly and more vocally, they insisted almost to a man that psychotherapy should not be administered by psychologists without supervision of a psychiatrist. This possibility did not appear to be a threat to their medical colleagues, who suggested here and there that any one of the "team" might serve as a key person in treatment.

Psychologists, seeking, as it were, their proper mission, were most identified with the research function. This seemed to be their self-concept.

IT IS difficult to find in this volume actual illustrations of psychologists contributing to the care of the chronically ill. Molly Harrower presents data on a study of patients with multiple sclerosis—in some illustrative detail on two subjects. Beatrix Cobb comes closest to showing what questions occur to the psychologist as she addresses herself to the challenge of team work. She knows cancer patients and their problems well, it appears, and shows how much the psychologist is in need of help as he faces these problems. In its scientific humility and pertinence hers is the most stimulating discussion in the book.

The volume is a reprint of almost entirely 234 pages of Number 3, Volume 12, (Fall 1954) of the *Texas Reports on Biology and Medicine*. For this reprinting, the original plates were used, and so reproduce not only the typographical errors present in the earlier printing but even the page numbers for an index to a paper by Lawrence S. Kubie appropriate to the *Texas Reports*.

Despite the careless or hasty editing given this book, it pictures accurately and impressively the existing situation regarding clinical psychology and teachers of medicine and psychiatry, the psychologists' search for medical validity, and the physicians' friendliness, anxiety, and paternalism.

Clinician, Quo Vadis?

Arthur Burton and Robert E. Harris (Eds.)

Clinical Studies of Personality (Vol. II of *Case Histories in Clinical and Abnormal Personality*)

New York: Harper & Brothers, 1955. Pp. xiii + 836. \$6.00.

By ALVIN SCODEL
The Ohio State University

THIS VOLUME of case studies poses some interesting problems. The variety of cases and the diversity of approaches brought to bear on them provide an adequate representational picture of current emphases and foci of interest among practicing clinical psychologists. Yet, it is precisely this virtue which highlights some glaring inconsistencies and radical differences of opinion in contemporary clinical approaches to individual cases. The editors note with satisfaction that, "under the influence of Rogerian, Sullivanian and other post-Freudian points of view, genetic reconstructions and overall conceptualizations of a life history are less often attempted." A few pages later Henry Murray, in his introduction, remarks most favorably that the present contributors are more knowledgeable concerning psychoanalytic theory than was the case in the earlier 1947 volume. "The reader hungering for basic stuff is no longer disregarded." This reviewer submits that the editors and Murray seem to be pursuing separate courses in their quest for an appropriate *modus operandi* for clinicians.

TWO CASES may be arbitrarily selected to illustrate much the same point. Machover describes a compulsive personality with meticulous attention to the Freudian theory of anal fixation. Hathaway's study of a case of low back-pain mentions the mechanism of repression only in passing, and his cursory remarks on this topic are preceded by the telling phrase, "For those who are intrigued by the effects of repressed hostility." One can conclude only that psychoanalytic theory is still a source of polarized attitudes among clinicians. Such differences, of course, may actually be a sign

of health, since they stimulate research and subsequent theoretical clarification (few psychologists would deplore the presence of both cognitive and S-R learning theories), but it is misleading to imply a rapidly growing unanimity when the case discussions supposedly used for supporting evidence suggest otherwise. Possibly a few well-chosen remarks by the editors could have provided for the unwary a suitable exegesis of this heterogeneity.

Aside from theoretical predilections, the case interpretations range from the highly ingenious to the grossly pedestrian. While fresh insights into particular kinds of cases are available to all, considerable selectivity is necessary to separate the wheat from the chaff. The reader's problem becomes especially acute when he attempts to assess the utility of psychological tests in the diagnosis and prognosis of cases. Some contributors use the tests judiciously by documenting generalizations with evidence from a number of test responses, while others intrepidly make depth interpretations on the basis of extremely minimal cues. In many instances the inferences from test response supplement coherently and plausibly the historical data, but some contributors are driven to awkward twists and turns to achieve consistency.

IT is also apparent from this volume that a clinician's choice of tests is as much a matter of personal preference as it is the result of widespread agreement about the efficacy of these tests. For better or for worse, the Rorschach and TAT appear to be firmly entrenched, but, in addition, numerous contributors display idiosyncratic biases. Hathaway has his MMPI, the Machovers have their Figure Drawings, Buck has his H-T-P, and Deri has her Szondi. The editors state that many of the contributors were chosen because of their identification with a clinical method, but, nonetheless, such variability in the choice of instruments, unrelated to the diagnostic peculiarities of particular cases, is indicative of a certain amount of anarchic confusion in the field of clinical psychology.

An Adolescent Topsy

Ruth Kotinsky and Helen L. Witmer (Eds.)

Community Programs for Mental Health

Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1955. Pp. xix + 362. \$5.00.

By ISABELLE V. KENDIG

National Institute of Mental Health

THIS collection of papers is best understood in historical perspective. In 1908, Clifford Beers published an account of his experiences in a mental hospital and thus launched the Mental Hygiene Movement. In 1909, Freud made his memorable visit to Clark University since when his theories of the psychodynamics of behavior have spread slowly like a tide over the land with ultimate profound effect upon our understanding of psychological disorders. The present volume reflects the remarkable development of the mental health movement, as it is now termed, since that first decade. To quote Sol W. Ginsburg, whose paper may be said to keynote the series, "Mental health has become a social goal and cultural value" with its own army of workers, trained and untrained, who see in the movement both a cause and a panacea.

Looking back, it is amazing to see how naive were our earlier aspirations. In 1915, for example, social service organizations in a large Eastern city established what was called, somewhat ambiguously, the League for Preventive Work. Its aim, however, was clearly formulated: to stamp out mental deficiency by institutionalizing all the feeble-minded, so preventing their multiplication. (These were the days when 'eugenic' projects, stimulated by Davenport's studies at Cold Spring Harbor, were springing up in many areas.) After mental deficiency was eradicated, the League proposed to deal with other ills, such as illegitimacy, equally troubling to social workers.

It is most hopeful that the mental health movement has now achieved that degree of self-awareness that inspires its leaders to seek to clarify its fundamental

tenets and practices. The half dozen papers presented here raise, however, many questions and offer few answers. It appears, as Ginsburg points out, "that effort has outstripped firm knowledge and that theory has been left far in the rear." The cause of mental illness is still insufficiently understood; there is no generally accepted definition of mental health, and no 'core curriculum' of principles upon which to base action. The diversity of present practice is well illustrated in the nine community programs described by Chamberlain and de Schweinitz and in the three school programs outlined by Biber. Treatment has been largely abandoned as a goal and emphasis placed upon the achievement of broad promotional and educational aims.

Edith M. Tufts, perhaps, raises the crucial question—"Is the whole field of mental health promotion perhaps only transitional?"—that is, is it simply the attempt by informed persons to teach the principles of mental health to those who are in a position to incorporate them into the practices of the various services and institutions for which they are responsible? If this is its destiny, the movement will have to be quite differently structured than if it is to develop as a permanent field in its own right. Nevertheless the task of conceptualization must still be undertaken and the problem of training its host of workers, barely touched upon, faced.

In the closing chapters, Jahoda proposes "a social psychology of mental health" and Louisa P. Howe contributes a brilliant paper on problems of evaluation, nicely supplemented by Robert Holt in an appendix which gives clear technical information on the conduct of sample surveys. One wonders, however, if evaluation must not be deferred until some of the basic, theoretical questions, already raised, have been answered.

While the symposium as a whole will prove thought-provoking to the layman interested in mental health, its challenge is to professional workers responsible for shaping and directing this lusty, adolescent movement.

PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF AGING

Proceedings of a Conference on Planning
Research, Bethesda, Md., April 24-27, 1955

John E. Anderson, *Editor*

This Conference, financed by a grant (MH 985)
from the National Institute of Mental Health, U. S.
Public Health Service, was held under the auspices
of the Committee on Research, Division of Maturity
and Old Age, American Psychological Association;
James E. Birren, Robert J. Havighurst, Harold E.
Jones, and John E. Anderson, Chairman.

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FILMS

By ADOLPH MANOIL, Editor

References on Films and Other Audio-Visual Materials

Most of the films, filmstrips, recordings and other audio-visual materials are announced in various producers' and distributors' catalogues. Special classifications, such as child psychology, mental health, vocational guidance, teacher training, education, are generally provided. (See list of catalogues under Films and other audio-visual materials received).

Besides these distributors' catalogues, there are also available comprehensive guides with short descriptions and appropriate classifications. In this category are: *Blue Book of Audio-Visual Materials: Films, Filmstrips, Slides, Recordings* (Chicago: Educational Screen); Frederic A. Krahn (Ed.), *Educational Film Guide* (New York: H. W. Wilson), with semi-annual supplements; Frederic A. Krahn (Ed.), *Filmstrip Guide* (New York: H. W. Wilson), with semi-annual supplements.

Library of Congress Catalog cards on *Films, Filmstrips, and Recordings* are also available, as for books. Similar information is available through Educational Film Library Association, 345 E. 46th St., New York 17, N. Y., and Film Council of America, 600 Davis St., Evanston, Illinois.

Current information can be found in various audio-visual periodicals such as *Audio-Visual Communication Review*, Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, NEA, 1201 16th St., NW, Washington, D. C.; *Audio-Visual Guide*, 1630 Springfield Ave., Maplewood, New Jersey; *Educational Screen*, 2000 Lincoln Park West, Chicago, 14, Illinois; *Film World*, 6060 Sunset Blvd., Hollywood, California; *Instructional Materials*, Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, NEA 1201 16th St., NW, Washington 6, D. C.; also in *Revue Internationale de Filmologie*,

Presses Universitaires de France, 108 Boulevard Saint-Germain, Paris, France.

Information on international bibliography on audio-visual materials can be found in such publications as Jan C. Bouman, *Bibliography on Filmology as Related to the Social Sciences*, Reports and Papers on Mass Communication, No. 9, 1954, Clearing House Dept. of Mass Communication (Paris: UNESCO); *Catalogues of Short Films and Filmstrips*, selected list, Reports and Papers on Mass Communication, No. 14, 1955, Clearing House, Dept. of Mass Communication (Paris: UNESCO); *Visual Aids in Fundamental Education*, Educational Studies and Documents, Education Abstracts, vol. VI, No. 4, 1954, Education Clearing House (Paris: UNESCO).

Specialized information on psychological films is given in such publications as *Directory of Professional Motion Picture Films and Authors* (Lawrence, Kansas: Professional Publications, 1954, pp. 326); *Catalog of Films on Psychology* (London WC2, 164 Shaftesbury Ave.: Scientific Film Association, 1953, pp. xvi + 107); *Mental Health Motion Pictures: a Selective Guide*. (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Govt. Printing Office, 1952, pp. 124); Anthony R. Michaelis, *Research Films in Biology, Anthropology, Psychology, and Medicine* (New York: Academic Press, 1955, pp. svi + 490), A. Nichtenhauser, M. L. Coleman, and D. S. Ruhe, *Films in Psychiatry, Psychology, and Mental Health* (New York: Health Education Council, 1953, pp. 269); *Psychological Cinema Register*, Catalog, 1954, 1955, 1956 (University Park, Pa.: Pennsylvania State University, 1956) with supplements listing also tape recordings; J. H. Rothstein and T. O'Connor, *Films on the Handicapped, an Annotated Directory* (Washington, D. C.: International Council for Exceptional Children, Nat. Educ. Assoc., 1955, pp. vi + 56).

References to films on psychological subjects could also be found in *Gesamtver-*

zeichnis der wissenschaftlichen Filme, (Göttingen, Germany: Institut für den wissenschaftlichen Film, 1955, pp. 96, (with supplements); *Films on the Sciences* from The British Film Institute (London WC2: British Film Institute, 1954, pp. 24); also in lists and guides from *Bundesstaatliche Hauptstelle für Lichtbild und Bildungsfilm* (Wien, ix Sengengasse, 3, Austria).

Besides the above reading references there is also available a series of 16-mm., black and white, sound films, on the use of audio-visual materials in teaching. In this category are the following: *Accent on Learning* (Ohio State University, 30 min., 1949); *Audio-Visual Materials in Teaching* (Coronet Films, 13½ min., 1956); *Bringing the World to the Classroom* (EBF, 22 min., 1938); *New Doorways to Learning* (Cathedral Films, 19 min., 1953); *New Tools for Learning*, (EBF, 19 min., 1951); *Using the Classroom Film* (EBF, 24 min., 1945).

A special category of materials which should be mentioned is that of teacher's guides, leader's guides, or scripts to supplement the films and help in the preparation of their showing. All the films produced by Coronet, Encyclopædia Britannica, or Young American Films, e.g., are provided with special guides that give the description of the content, indications as to use and, generally, reading references.

Guides, such as Ernest Herrz and Tracy J. Putnam, *Motor Disorders in Nervous Diseases* (New York: King's Crown Press, 1946, pp. x + 184) for the film series with the same name, and S. Philip Goodhart and Benjamin Harris Balser, *Neurological Cinematographic Atlas* (New York: King's Crown Press, 1944, pp. viii + 64) for a series of films on neurological subjects, are the equivalent of teaching manuals and provide highly technical information.

Finally, there are available a few guides, such as *The Coordinator* (Film Guide issue, Oregon Coordinating Council on Social Hygiene and Family Life, vol. iv, no. 1, Sept. 1955) and Daniel A. Malamud, *Teaching a Human Relations Workshop* (Chicago: Center for the Study of Liberal Arts Education, 1955, pp. iii + 35) prepared by specialists independently of the producers of films. These guides not only describe the films but also give critical evaluations and de-

tailed analysis as to the most effective use of certain films.

SUPPLEMENTARY REFERENCES

- EDGAR DALE. *Audio-visual methods in teaching*. (Rev. ed.) New York: Dryden Press, 1954. Pp. xii + 534.
- MARJORIE EAST. *Display for learning*. (Ed. by Edgar Dale.) New York: Dryden Press, Pp. vii + 306.
- CAROLINE GUSS. A critical survey of resources for locating and selecting audio-visual materials. *Audio-Visual Communication Review*, 1955, 3, 64-71.
- NELSON B. HENRY (Ed.). *The forty-eighth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Part I: Audio-visual materials of instruction*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1949. Pp. x + 320.
- ROBERT DE KIEFFER AND LEE W. COCHRAN. *Manual of audio-visual techniques*. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1955. Pp. iv + 220.
- JAMES S. KINDER AND F. DEAN MCCLUSKY. *The audio-visual reader*. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown, 1954. Pp. xiv + 382.
- WALTER S. MONROE (Ed.). *Encyclopedia of educational research*. New York: Macmillan, 1952. Pp. 84-97.
- LESTER B. SANDS. *Audio-visual procedures in teaching*. New York: Ronald Press, 1955. Pp. 670.
- Educational index*. New York: H. W. Wilson. Published monthly.
- The health education journal: special edition on visual education*. The Central Council for Health Education. Tavistock House, Tavistock Square, London W.C.1., 1955. Pp. xiii + 112.
- The healthy village: an experiment in visual education in West China*. (Monographs on Fundamental Education, V.) Paris: UNESCO, 1951. Pp. 119.

FILM GUIDES

- MARY S. FISHER AND L. J. STONE. *Explanation notes on the series of films: I: Finger painting, II: Balloons, III: Frustration play techniques, IV: This is Robert*. New York: New York University Film Library, 1954. Pp. 16.
- MARGARET E. FRIES. *Instructor's guide to a psychoneurosis with compulsive trends in the making*. (16-mm. motion picture film.) New York: New York University Film Library, n.d. Mimeographed. Pp. 39.
- KARL VON FRISCH. *Bees: their vision, chemical senses, and language*. Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1950. Pp. xiii + 119. (Could be used with the film *Dances of the bees*, Psychological Cinema Register).
- JAMES ROBERTSON. *A guide to the film, A two-year-old goes to the hospital*. London: Tavistock Publications, 1953. Pp. 20.

T. C. SCHNEIRLA. *The dances of the bees: lecture manual* (K. von Frisch's 16-mm. motion picture film.) New York: E. J. Mouthner (formerly Wilner Films & Slides), n.d. Pp. 10.

LAWRENCE JOSEPH STONE. *Guide to the film, Finger painting: children's use of plastic minerals*. New York: New York University Film Library, 1944. Pp. 55.



Books on Audio-Visual Materials

Lester B. Sands

Audio-Visual Procedures in Teaching

New York: Ronald Press, 1956. Pp. viii + 670. \$6.00.

Teaching as a communication process aimed at the facilitation and promotion of learning finds a valuable aid in audio-visual methods. Textbooks and lectures could be made more meaningful through appropriate use of actual or vicarious experiences at various levels of concreteness. The development of techniques and materials in that area, however, requires systematization and training for effective utilization.

Sands's textbook represents a valuable contribution to a better understanding and more effective use of audio-visual procedures. It could be used as a text for special training courses for teachers in service, as a reference to sources of all types of audio-visual materials, and also as a tool for technical and general information. Various chapters present a critical analysis of particular audio-visual aids, describe the necessary equipment, and are meaningfully related to the entire teaching process.

The author emphasizes the democratic approach to the teaching-learning process and recognizes the functional nature of all audio-visual procedures.

The richness of technical detail, references, illustrations, diagrams, as well as the systematic presentation of the whole field, should make the book a valuable tool for information and learning of characteristic aspects of audio-visual instruction.

Robert de Kieffer and Lee W. Cochran

Manual of Audio-Visual Techniques

Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1955. Pp. iv + 220. \$3.60.

The use of audio-visual aids in teaching requires familiarity with appropriate techniques and materials, as well as with reading references. This manual is organized so as to provide all necessary information and a step-by-step practical guide to the effective use of most audio-visual materials and techniques. The presentation of these techniques is such as to be applicable to all areas of teaching independently of grade-level or content. The techniques are not limited to materials as such and their use, but extend to evaluation procedures, organization, and preparation. The manual emphasizes teaching as a communication process resulting in effective learning experiences. It presents in detail the areas of projected and nonprojected teaching materials and equipment, as well as audio materials, equipment, and television. A comprehensive view of the all-school audio-visual program is also presented. Well selected pictorial material, bibliography and index supplement the manual. As a whole the *Manual* should prove useful not only for special teacher-training classes and seminars but also as an information tool for all interested in teaching with audio-visual aids.

James S. Kinder and F. Dean McClusky (Editors)

The Audio-Visual Reader

Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co. 1954. Pp. xiv + 382. \$5.75.

Audio-visual instruction could be viewed as a system of techniques for the facilitation of learning through particular emphasis on direct experiences. This emphasis recognizes learning as a communication process with predominant use of concrete referents.

The book under consideration presents a good sample of articles on various aspects of audio-visual instruction. The material is organized so as to give a comprehensive view of the field including basic assumptions and technical ad-

ministrative procedures. Theoretical considerations are developed in terms of basic psychological principles relevant to learning theory and effective communication. Historical background and the functional aspects of audio-visual instruction as related to scholastic curriculum are also presented.

Various audio-visual materials and their utilization for effective teaching are presented in detail as to use and rationale. That includes blackboards, bulletin boards, dioramas, dramatization and puppets, excursions and field trips, exhibits and museums, feltboards, photographs, charts, illustrations in books, maps and globes, motion pictures, opaque projection, radio, records and recordings, slides, slidefilms, stereographs, tachistoscope, and television. Specific applications to elementary and secondary schools as well as to higher education are also given with reference to different subject-matter areas. The administration of audio-visual instruction covers a great variety of practical aspects from organization through teacher in-service and pre-service training. General applications to adult education, mental health, religious education, armed services, as well as prevailing trends, are also given. The book has also a chapter on research that gives useful bibliographic information.

As a whole the Kinder-McClusky reader, through the richness and variety of its content and its systematic presentation, represents a valuable contribution to a better understanding of the field of audio-visual instruction.

F. Dean McClusky

The A-V Bibliography (Rev. Ed.)

Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown, 1955. Pp. xi + 218. \$3.75.

With few exceptions, the literature on audio-visual instruction is spread through various educational and specialized journals and magazines. Even if a moderately sized library could provide the necessary materials, a systematic comprehensive bibliography would still be needed. The work of Dr. McClusky satisfies exactly such a need. The book presents, with short annotations, a comprehensive index of references that covers in great detail various areas of audio-visual instruction.

Comprehensive references are given for the philosophy and psychology of teaching with audio-visual materials, for audio-visual teaching materials and their use, as well as for specific applications to elementary schools, secondary schools, and higher education. References concerning the administration of audio-visual instruction and applications to adult education, armed services, handicapped children, mental health, safety education, libraries, and other areas are also given.

As the use of audio-visual materials is to be assessed in terms of their proved effectiveness, the section dealing with research on the value and utilization of audio-visual materials is of particular interest. This section (pp. 164-198) provides references on various research in that field, including master's theses and doctoral dissertations. The doctoral dissertations are listed up to 1954 inclusive; *Instructional Film Research Program Technical Reports*, however, do not go beyond 1950.

The McClusky A-V bibliography is a useful reference tool. It should contribute to increasing the information on audio-visual materials and their use and thus promote good instruction. The book as a whole would gain if supplemented with subject and author indexes.

Directory of Professional Motion Picture Films and Authors

Lawrence, Kansas: Professional Publications, 1954. Pp. 326. \$7.50.

This directory presents an alphabetical list of films with short descriptions. The films are classified under two main categories: (1) medical films, (2) dental films. Eighty-six psychological films are listed as a subclassification under medical films. Other psychological films, however, can be found under the subclassifications: neurology, psychiatry, mental health, general, and pediatrics.

The book presents also a list of authors with biographical data and professional connections.

The reference value of the directory would be increased if it were supplemented with an index by titles and subject matter. That would facilitate the location of films without one's having to go through separate alphabetizations of overlapping categories.

Audio-Visual Instruction

Audio-Visual Materials in Teaching

Francis W. Noel, educational collaborator. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white or color, sound, 13½ min., 1956. Produced in cooperation with National College of Education, Evanston, Ill. Available through Coronet Instructional Films, Coronet Bldg., Chicago 1, Ill., and other distributors. \$68.75; color, \$125.00.

The importance and use of audio-visual materials in teaching is clearly demonstrated.

Various film sequences show different kinds of materials such as models, charts, slides, films, recordings, as well as materials produced by pupils themselves. The preparation of a unit of study on soil conservation, at the elementary grade level, is interestingly presented.

The film emphasizes the value of audio-visual materials as a means for developing interest, improving learning, stimulating student participation, and influencing attitudes. The function of the visual aids center and the audio-visual coordinator are also demonstrated.

The film could be used as a teaching tool with classes in educational psychology and teacher's training. It could also serve as a good illustration of the basic principles and the application of audio-visual methodology.

Adult Education

Adult education through extension courses and various radio and television programs represents a characteristic effort for the promotion of democratic ideals. This effort, however, does not provide for enough individual participation. The initiative and conduct of educational programs is still the work of educational specialists.

A greater amount of participation is being achieved when there is free exchange of ideas as a result of social and individual needs personally experienced. This relationship develops in small group conversations or discussion groups.

The function, organization, and meaningfulness of the discussion group are presented in the following three films produced under a grant to the University of Chicago from the Ford Fund for Adult Education.

The films are provided with a discussion guide that gives a general analysis of basic principles of discussion, indication for use, reading references, and a self-rating sheet for leaders.

Room for Discussion

Cyril O. Houle, University of Chicago, collaborator, and Gilbert Aberg. Hal Kopel, producer, and Mervin Brodshaug. Panel of advisors: Leland Bradford, Malcolm Knowles, James H. McBurney, and Howard McClusky. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 24 min., 1953. Available through Encyclopedia Britannica Films, 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Ill., and other distributors. \$122.50.

The discussion group as a means of communication and enrichment of the life of the individual as well as a technique for social betterment in general is clearly analyzed and illustrated. Various film sequences show discussion as a common process of exchange of ideas, as a means for solving personal and family problems, as a device for mediation between labor and management, and finally as a thinking process and appropriate medium for the implementation of democratic principles.

The film is intended as an instrument for the promotion of discussion as an educational and transactional device for the improvement of human relations and the strengthening of democracy.

Organizing Discussion Groups

Cyril O. Houle, University of Chicago, collaborator, and Gilbert Aberg. Hal Kopel, producer, and Melvin Brodshaug. Panel of advisors: Leland Bradford, Malcolm Knowles, James H. McBurney, and Howard McClusky. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 21 min., 1953. Available through Encyclopedia Britannica Films, 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Ill., and other distributors. \$100.00, rental \$4.50.

Discussion groups are organized in various communities for the satisfaction of different individual and group needs. The feeling of aloneness characteristic of people living in congested metropolitan areas, the need to solve certain social problems, special interests, or the simple pleasure of belonging to a group, are all contributing factors to the formation of discussion groups. Interaction within a discussion group provides for identifica-

tion, sharing of information, exchange of ideas, promotion of social welfare, and results in a feeling of belongingness and participation conducive to mental health.

This film presents specific steps necessary for the starting and organizing of discussion groups. It stresses the value for adult education and the importance of meaningful human relations.

How to Conduct a Discussion

Cyril O. Houle, University of Chicago, collaborator, and Gilbert Aberg. Hal Kopel, producer, and Melvin Brodshaug. Panel of advisors: Leland Bradford, Malcolm Knowles, James H. McBurney and Howard McClusky. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 24 min., 1953. Available through Encyclopedia Britannica Films, 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Ill., and other distributors. \$100.00.

Basic principles on how to conduct a discussion with emphasis on the qualities of the leader are clearly analyzed and illustrated. The leader should be intelligent, interested in people and also accepted and respected by his group. He should be able to make people participate in the discussion, maintain the cohesiveness of the group, and create an atmosphere conducive to free exchange of ideas. The group should be composed of individuals interested in discussion and willing to cooperate in the achievement of common goals.

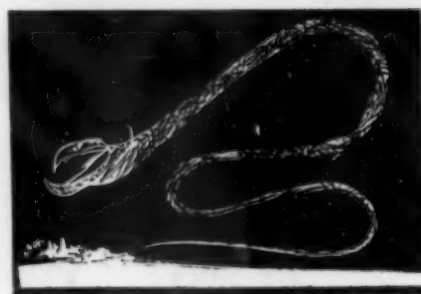
The film emphasizes the importance of evaluation of achievement, especially self-evaluation for the leader.

Social Psychology

Rumor

Center for Mass Communication of Columbia University Press, and Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 7 min., 1955. Available through Center for Mass Communication, Columbia University Press, 1125 Amsterdam Ave., New York 25, N. Y. \$50.00.

Rumor as a psychological problem with its social implications is interestingly presented through drawings and corresponding narrator's comments. The drawings are suggestive and might contribute to an increased awareness of the problem.



RUMOR: SNAKELIKE ELUSIVENESS

(From the film *Rumor*. Center for Mass Communication, Columbia University.)

The film emphasizes the distortion of facts as related to point of view or perceptive processes and their further distortion through 'contaminated' communication. The resulting social turmoil is also pictured with emphasis on its unrelatedness to the original event that started the chain of distortions.

The film is intended only as a challenge for discussion, and raises such problems as "how a rumor starts," "how to stop rumor," and "what the audience thinks about rumor."

The cinematographic technique used in this film is similar to that used in *Can We Immunize Against Prejudice?* (CP, 1, 185). The difference is that in this film the drawings are simple sketchings, more suggestive of action, and they also include an element of humor.

The film could be used as a means of stimulating discussion but presupposes some knowledge of the psychology of rumor. With lay audiences it would be the function of the discussion leader to point out the meaning of certain sketches and sequences for the film narration alone would not suffice. For this reason the film might require more than one showing. The use of slides from the film might prove even more effective.

The use of this film in classes in social and general psychology could supplement the text, *The Psychology of Rumor*, by G. W. Allport and L. Postman, as a means for anchoring of discussion. It could also be used as a demonstration of basic perceptive processes in terms of individual, social, and structural aspects.



*Of particular interest to
psychologists in this
Freud centenary year. . .*

PSYCHOANALYSIS AS SEEN BY ANALYZED PSYCHOLOGISTS

This well-known symposium, originally published in the *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* in 1940 and 1941, has now been reprinted. The symposium, totaling some 160 pages, includes the following articles:

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ON THE OTHER HAND...

AMERICAN DRIVE AND BRITISH THOUGHTFULNESS

Let me, first, congratulate *CP* on its beginning and, second, tell it what I think on the policy question of whether to review more books than now. I would urge *CP* not to print more and shorter reviews—if anything, I would be in favor of fewer and longer ones. From the vantage point of Oxford in England, American psychology appears to be healthy and wealthy but not very wise. Our journals in America are bursting and our books multiply, but a lot of our work seems to be impulsive or hasty. Should not *CP* set its face against this trend?

Psychology in Britain is a lot less energetic and a whole lot less prosperous than in the States, but it is also more thoughtful. Criticism is better over here, I think; the standards of criticism are higher. We Americans seem to be indiscriminating by contrast, whereas at their worst the British are, of course, just lethargic.

JAMES J. GIBSON
Sojourning at Oxford

PSYCHOLOGY'S BLOCK OF MARBLE

CP speaks (April 1956) of 9,000 articles and 400 books a year. That makes roughly 100,000,000 words of psychology every 52 weeks—about three words per second. What are the chances that somewhere in last year's 10⁸ words I would find the Big Idea I need for next year's research? Should I search for it in the depths of the library, or could I rediscover it more quickly for myself in the laboratory?

Norbert Wiener asks this question in terms of cybernetics. If monkeys were trained to keep typewriting at random, they would eventually have produced all the works of Shakespeare. Could anyone less than Shakespeare select those prodigies of literature out of all the vast quantity of simian typing? Just so a block of marble contains the sculpture that the sculptor will create; is his task then merely to remove the unnecessary marble until he finds his work of art? These 10⁸ words every year are our block of marble, not our work of art. If it takes as much ability to recognize the seminal ideas as it does to create them, a psychologist who wants to be creative might better spend his time thinking than reading.

If we are to be something more than monkeys pecking at keys, if our professional enterprise is to have a direction more digni-

fied than a random walk, we need some historical sense of the consequences of our work. Wiener phrases this idea in terms of feedback, but reinforcement or knowledge of results would be equally appropriate terms. The short-term feedback is easy enough. An experiment gives it relatively quickly. When the experiment is turned into an article, the feedback is slower. Articles become books, with still longer delays. And books become a part of culture, with feedback loops that may outlast the author. For such long-term feedback it is necessary to have institutions that live longer than their members.

Feedback is as essential to the development of psychology as it is to the prediction and control of a guided missile. I wonder how much we are doing to maintain the communication that gives coherence to our cooperative efforts. Most of the pressures seem to work the other way. Our journals are getting to be junk boxes where we toss odd facts and footnotes to unwritten texts. Of course, the junk is periodically dusted off, abstracted and reviewed. I have studied the faithful pages of the *Annual Review* and searched for a plot in the *Psychological Abstracts*, and I respect the thoroughness of their compilers. But a compilation is not a science. The pressure for space seems to squeeze the insight out.

The only place left where the mosaic can be put together and the direction re-inserted is in the books. Only there can the psychologist of today locate himself in any perspective or struggle toward whatever omniscience he can endure. And only there can we go to search for prediction and guidance, for the thoughtful feedback from the past that must control our path into the future. Our journals, in their zeal for objectivity, have become catalogs of spare parts for a machine they never build. They have abdicated their rightful role of leadership. Until the vacuum is filled, until the editors can find some way to rise above the manuscripts we submit, the policy decisions will have to be made between hard covers.

It is still profitable to read books—some books, anyhow. There are signs the monkeys may be invading that realm, too, for there can't be 400 profitable books written on psychology every year, but I still have faith that the wisdom of my colleagues will find expression somewhere. And, with *CP's* help, that bookish wisdom may be fed back where it is so urgently needed.

It does seem to be necessary for every

young science to go through an empirical stage when the efforts of the majority of workers are directed toward the patient accumulation and integration of factual data. But this stage needs to be an orderly one, not a blind striking out in all directions simultaneously. The workers must agree upon the data that are needed for their science to come to terms with its own segment of the universe; they must know whither they are going. This is not the present situation in psychology, nor should we pretend that it is. We still need prediction and guidance, more Michelangelos who can see the statue in the block of marble. I do not know how we are to get them. The books help to chip away the useless marble. *CP* helps. And surely the problem is worth wondering about. How can we reinforce wisdom in psychologists?

GEORGE A. MILLER
Harvard University

GIVE SCHOLARSHIP SCOPE

Here are some suggestions of possible features for *CP*. When *CP* was first proposed I was not especially in favor of it. I felt that it would result in reviews that lack character. After all, I argued (silently), reviews must be written for special audiences, and psychologists are too different to comprise a single public. While I still feel somewhat the same way, a number of reviews have made me see possibilities about which, I am sure, *CP* was already certain. Hence these suggestions, as confession and expiation.

First, has *CP* considered having reviews written by people whose specialty lies in an area different from that of the book under review? For example, it is one thing to have someone like Estes do a review of Bush and Mosteller and even to have Skinner or Wilson do opinions, but it would have been even more challenging to have someone like Klein, Werner, Stephenson, Rotter, or Allport do one.

Many of the reviews of old (especially the *American Journal of Psychology*, but also the *Psychological Bulletin*) were really essays in which the reviewer came to grips with new problems, announced a position or evaluated a trend. This is still the tradition in many other fields like philosophy, economics, history, and biology. Such reviews are publishable in a man's collected works where they easily hold their own with more formal es-

says, because the book has been used as an occasion for critical analysis and appreciation rather than sheer exposition. Anyone, after all, can look through a book and get a pretty good idea of what it is about. What is desirable is for a reader to have a base point against which to test his own judgments or to be led into lines of thought he would not follow on his own. The 'outsider' can frequently accomplish both and, hence, be maximally useful to readers. If, by publishing such analyses, *CP* restores the review to a proud place in psychological writing, it will, in turn, have a right to be proud.

A second suggestion stems from my fondness for the old reviews but is prompted also by a custom literary magazines occasionally use. Let us have contemporary reviews of old classics. It should not be done deadpan, as if just published (though that could be fun, too), but as an attempt to reassess history. Imagine reviews of James, Titchener, Angell, Freud, Brentano, Wundt, Lotze, Helmholtz, Fechner, Hartley. Here, indeed, would be the place for several reviewers. I don't believe there would have to be many of these to arouse attention and to give psychologists a better sense of history, of which a former teacher of mine said, "A lack of historical sense accompanies a lack of good sense."

Finally, I believe that *CP* can make a contribution by straying from the field of psychology. We are too often provincial in our intellectual wanderings. There are works in such closely allied fields as history, political science, economics, anthropology, sociology, and biology which merit being brought to our attention in a critical manner. There are even volumes in literature (including novels) and art and the physical sciences, not to mention philosophy, which might be seriously considered for reviews.

I believe, that, if *CP* is not to fall into the fatal trap of being an expanded version of *Psychological Abstracts*, it should take an independent attitude and attempt to provide the psychological community with ideas, suggestion, stimulation, and controversy from an unexpected quarter. I think it has begun along these lines and this letter is designed primarily to encourage and approve what it has been doing. Let *CP* keep it up!

RICHARD A. LITTMAN
University of Oregon



To criticise is to appreciate, to appropriate, to take intellectual possession, to establish in fine a relation with the criticised thing and to make it one's own.

—HENRY JAMES



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- ANSTEY, E., & E. O. MERCER. *Interviewing for the selection of staff*. London: George Allen & Unwin, for the Royal Institute of Public Administration, 1956. Pp. xiv + 111. 10s. 6d.
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- BENDIX, REINHARD. *Work and authority in industry*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1956. Pp. xxv + 466. \$7.50.
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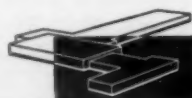
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